The Nation

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 28, 1915.

Summary of the News

The question of the Dacia, involving as it does the transference of interned German vessels to the flag of the United States, continues to drag its slow length along. The vessel was expected to sail on Tuesday, and presumably she will be taken by a British cruiser, and the whole matter will be threshed out in an English prize court. Meanwhile the incident seems less likely than ever to endanger the good relations of this country and England. The position of the British Government in the matter was made perfectly clear in a communication made last week through Sir Cecil Spring-Rice to the State Department. It is with the status of the vessel alone that Great Britain is concerned, and the British Government expressed its willingness either to purchase the cargo at the price agreed to by the German purchasers or to bear the cost of forwarding it to Rotterdam in another vessel. In Washington the view appears to be taken that the British Government has a perfect right to test the genuineness of the transfer of registry in the case of the Dacia, and it is agreed that the British prize court is the proper authority to pass on the question. Should the findings of the court not be regarded as consistent with the facts and the evidence, the question can be reopened through diplomatic channels.

The general question of the attitude of the United States towards belligerent countries was fully discussed in a letter addressed by Secretary of State Bryan to Senator William J. Stone, of Missouri, which was made public on Monday. The letter, which we discuss more fully elsewhere, was really an official statement of the position which has been taken up by the Administration and a justification of its policy towards belligerents. In particular it appears to have been designed to placate German sympathizers in the United States who have asserted that the Government has been partial towards the Allies. The letter, it is stated, was written after consultation with the legal authorities of the State Department and it contains an explicit statement of the attitude adopted by the Administration towards the various questions involved by the war as they have arisen.

The intentions of Rumania and Italy continue to be the subjects of many rumors. Dispatches from Bucharest would seem definitely to establish the fact that down to the smallest details Rumania has made every preparation for entering the struggle at a moment's notice, but the final step is still delayed. The opinion to which we have previously called attention in these columns seems to be gaining ground, that if action is taken by these two countries it will be taken simultaneously, and dispatches from London, Bucharest, and Vienna on January 22 stated that, in a final effort to stay their participation, Prince von Hohenlohe-Schillingfurst, Austrian Ambassador at Berlin, had gone to Bucharest, and Prince von Wedel, former German Ambassador at Vienna, to Rome on special missions.

Replying to questions of members of the Duma, the Russian Foreign Minister, M. Sasonoff, said on Tuesday that Russia would remain faithful to the agreement with the Allies and would not seek an independent peace.

The official *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* announced on January 21 that Lieut.-Gen. von Falkenhayn, who, since the eclipse of Field Marshal von Moltke, has held the positions of Chief of the General Staff and of War Minister, had resigned the latter office. His successor is Major-Gen. Wild von Hohenborn.

The full text of the pastoral letter of Cardinal Mercier, Archbishop of Malines and Primate of Belgium, which was suppressed by the German authorities, was published in the New York *Times* on January 22. We comment elsewhere upon the substance of this eloquent and convincing document.

Dispatches from Berlin on Monday contained the news that stringent regulations have been laid down by the German Federal Council concerning the conservation of food supplies. The entire grain crop is ordered confiscated by Government on February 1, and all business in grain was prohibited after January 26. Municipalities have been charged with the duty of setting aside suitable supplies of preserved meat. The reason for the measure, according to the *Imperial Gazette* of Berlin, is that it is necessary to make certain of a regular supply of foodstuffs until the next harvest.

The dispute between Italy and Turkey arising out of the Hodeida incident remains unsettled, the latest intelligence being that the Governor of Yemen, the province in which Hodeida is situated, refuses to obey the order received from the Porte to deliver up the British Vice-Consul, to punish those responsible for the outrage on the Italian Consulate, and to salute the Italian flag. Precedents of Ottoman diplomacy would lend color to the suspicion that the recalcitrancy of the Governor is a pretext for gaining time, although it may be urged that if the Governor really refuses to obey orders it is not immediately apparent by what means the authorities at Constantinople could induce him to change his determination.

The situation of Portugal has been anomalous since the first weeks of the war, when the Government of the Republic announced that it would abide by the terms of the old treaty of alliance with Great Britain. The German Minister remains at Lisbon, despite the fact that Portuguese and German troops have been fighting in Portuguese Angola for the past two months. Now, there appears to be something like a Cabinet crisis, arising presumably out of the military situation. The Minister for War resigned on Sunday, but at the request of the Prime Minister withdrew his resignation for the time being, and meanwhile, as the Lisbon correspondent of the New York *Sun* puts it, "no one seems to know whether or not Portugal is involved in the war."

The Military Appropriation bill, carrying an appropriation of some $101,000,000, was passed by the House on January 22.

According to figures published last week by the Department of Commerce the increase in the exports of foodstuffs from this country last month, as compared with December, 1913, was phenomenally large. Exports of wheat increased fivefold and corn sixfold; fresh beef increased twelvefold, and flour exports more than 68 per cent.

Prospects of the Administration's Ship-Purchase bill were improved as a result of a resolution adopted by the caucus of Democratic Senators on Saturday of last week which made the bill a party measure and support of it binding on all Democratic members of the upper house. It was decided that the bill should be rigorously pressed, and that it should not give way even to appropriation measures. We would draw attention to the grave and well-considered speech in which Senator Root on Monday warned the Senate of the perils inherent in the measure.

The abominable lynching in Georgia, which we recorded last week, has aroused throughout the State demands for the arrest and punishment of its instigators, and the Governor has offered a reward of $500 each for the arrest and conviction of the first five members of the mob.

Additional earthquake shocks of some severity were felt in southern Italy on January 19, but no loss of life was caused. The Italian Government has appropriated $6,000,000 for the relief of victims of the earthquake of January 13, and has introduced other special measures for the alleviation of distress in the districts affected.

According to figures compiled by the customs administration, the effect of the war on France's foreign trade is shown in a loss of $400,000,000 for ten months of 1914, as compared with the corresponding ten months of the previous year.

The Boer rebel, Lieut.-Col. Maritz, is still spasmodically active. An official announcement from Pretoria, on January 24, stated that a raid which he had made at the head of 1,200 rebels on Upington, Bechuanaland, had been repulsed with a loss of twelve dead and several wounded and prisoners.

The deaths of the week include: Prof. Andrew Wheeler Phillips, the Right Rev. Thomas M. A. Burke, Prof. Louis Lindsay Dyche, Eugene Rostand, Justice Conrad Hollenbeck, January 20; Justice Alonzo K. Vickers, William D. Scott, George Thiebaud, January 21; Dr. Howard M. Hamill, ex-Gov. David H. Goodell, Miss Anna Warner, January 22; George E. Bryan, January 23; Vice-Admiral Onofre Betheder, Miss Anne Whitney, January 24; Dr. Benjamin Sharp, George Clinton Batchellor, Commodore William Braunersreuther, January 25.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The Week

It is difficult to follow the course of the Ship-Purchase bill in the Senate. The measure is one of those altered while you wait. For something definite we have to turn to the report on the shipping situation sent to the Senate by the Secretaries of the Treasury and of Commerce. As it is explained that Mr. Redfield could not, in his absence, sign the report, it is only fair to give to Mr. McAdoo all the glory of it. To Mr. McAdoo, the sole reason for the high ocean freight rates is "the greed of the steamship owners." They have got something like a temporary monopoly, and are enforcing it till it draws blood. Not being subject to Government regulation, they can charge what they please, and they are piling it up ruthlessly. Not a word has the Secretary to say of war risks as affecting freight charges. For him, the higher rates of marine insurance do not exist. Nor is he aware of the great congestion on the docks at Liverpool and Havre and elsewhere, owing to the military authorities having commandeered everything that they need for their own use, so that ships sometimes have to wait a week or ten days before being unloaded. Such delays, with the added risks that have to be paid for, might seem partially and naturally to explain the higher freight rates. But the Secretary of the Treasury finds it easier to dismiss the whole thing as pure "greed."

This is no small discovery by itself, but the Secretary's thumping one comes in his having ascertained that the tremendous charges on ocean freight are paid by American exporters, and, above all, by the American farmer! It is all a mistake to suppose that the extra cost of transportation is passed on to the foreign buyer and the foreign consumer. The whole thing is assessed upon us. Mr. McAdoo distinctly says that the high ocean freight rates are a "burden imposed on the farmers." He figures the total increase, over and above what the normal carrying charges would have been, at $216,000,000, provided the December rates continue through 1915. As he contemplates this great sum, and then works up to the total of millions which we have to pay to grasping foreign ship-owners, he gets highly excited. Why, it might turn the balance of trade against us! And Mr. McAdoo becomes almost inarticulate as he holds up to scorn those who object to the Government's spending $40,000,000 on ships, when the result would be a clear saving of $216,000,000 to the American farmer. He never stops to ask if the foreigner is paying the freight. Nowhere in this report is there a hint that he knows what is the price of wheat in Italy and Great Britain, or of cotton in Germany. In the Italian markets, wheat is selling at more than $2 a bushel. In the English, despite Governmental action, the price has gone up 9 shillings the quarter. This looks as if the high transportation cost were being added to the price abroad. But the Secretary of the Treasury has discovered that it all comes out of the pocket of the American farmer.

Congressman Hay deserves heartiest thanks for his refusal to be stampeded by the craze for armaments. He takes the sound position that the adding of a thousand officers and 25,000 men would help not at all. If we are to pursue our present pacific policy, we have enough men; if we are to attempt to rival Germany and France, the sooner we come to conscription the better. Mr. Hay also scored when he pointed out that Mr. Garrison was calling for 25,000 additional men when his superior, President Wilson, had not exercised the right which he possesses, under the law, of recruiting the army to the maximum strength allowed. This he is entitled to do if any emergency exists. Indeed, Mr. Garrison's course differs so, in spirit at least, from that of the President that one cannot but wonder at the lack of coördination. That the House stands whole-heartedly behind Mr. Hay and has no sympathy with Congressman Gardner's antics appears clearly enough from the vote in that body last Friday. On Mr. Gardner's motion that the appropriation for army aviation be increased from $600,000 to $1,000,000, the vote was 253 to 34. Others were as overwhelmingly decisive, the Republicans being as little inclined to follow Mr. Gardner as the Democrats.

The full text of Cardinal Mercier's pastoral letter to his stricken Belgian flock has been printed in English by the Catholic publishers of London, Burns & Oates. By their permission the New York *Times* gave it entire last Friday. No one can read it without being moved by its eloquence and the ardor of its exalted religious belief. In it we hear, as it were, the majestic voice of the Church itself, a thousand years the same, though Kings and Empires have come and gone. The consolation and the stimulus which these burning words of their Cardinal carried into the desolated homes of the Belgians must have been very great. But the effect upon the outside world, particularly among Catholic populations, cannot fail to be even greater. For this Prince of the Church puts in the most precise form the guilt of Germany. She "violated her oaths" in the mere invasion of Belgium; and in pursuance of her warfare she practiced unspeakable and needless cruelties. No need to recite their list, as Cardinal Mercier does in part. What must deeply shock the Catholic conscience everywhere is his giving the names of priests who were shot by German soldiers, or executed by the military authorities. There is nothing vague about this charge. Names and places are given. In Mercier's own diocese thirteen priests were put to death. To his "actual personal knowledge," more than thirty were killed elsewhere. And the Cardinal adds, referring particularly to the deported priests, "I affirm, upon my honor, and I am prepared to assert upon faith of my oath, that I have not met with a single ecclesiastic, secular or regular, who had once incited civilians to bear arms against the enemy." The circulation of this pastoral letter in Ireland ought to be good for 50,000 recruits.

In some respects the battle in the North Sea is the most important naval engagement of the war; in others it merely confirms certain facts already brought out, namely, that in a running fight the advantage is with the pursuers, and that where their superiority is clear, the punishment of the losers is disproportionately great. That was true off Heligoland, at the Falkland Islands, and off Coronel. In every one of these battles the losers were "outgunned," and this was the case on Sunday. But the opposing forces were more nearly equal in the North Sea than elsewhere, save that it was a case of 13.5-inch guns against 12-inch. Off the Falkland Islands the Germans were beaten by an overwhelming numerical superiority. In the North Sea it was five ships against four, the British having their best and newest ships in line. As for the larger results, Admiral Beatty's victory will probably stop further raiding of the British coasts by cruisers, or at least make the Germans realize just what risks they are running. Certainly, we shall hear less from the German press now about England's control of the sea having been broken, and of the boasts that England's coasts are at Germany's mercy. There will probably, however, be an increased likelihood of aerial raids.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

So heavy have been Germany's losses in armored and battle-cruisers that it would seem as if she would be extremely loath to risk any more in dashes towards England, which are merely pin-pricks and help the British Government instead of making its task more difficult. Of its most powerful cruisers the German navy has now lost six —the Blücher, Yorck, Gneisenau, Scharnhorst, the Goeben by sale to Turkey, and the Friedrich Karl by striking a mine, if Russian and English statements about this vessel are correct. If, in addition, two of those engaged in the North Sea are seriously damaged, there are left only four battle-cruisers and five armored cruisers. The three ships that escaped from Admiral Beatty were battle-cruisers of the newest type, the Derfflinger having been completed and put in service since the war began. Two others, the Hertha and Lützow, are counted above as also having been completed; if they are not in service, the Kaiser's cruiser fleet is still smaller. Germany is fortunate in not having lost a single battleship thus far, but in cruisers she has paid the price, having lost sixteen all told since hostilities began. The attrition of the German fleet is thus far more ominous than that of the British.

The world will await with interest the ultimate justification from Berlin of the German air-raid upon non-combatants in undefended English towns. In truth, it cannot be justified. It has no warrant in international law. It is against both the spirit and the letter of the Hague Conventions. No military necessity can be pleaded for it. It is a bit of pure savagery in warfare. We assert this, not because the Germans did it, but because it was done at all. Whoever does it ought to fall under the heaviest condemnation of civilized men. There are laws by which all such inhumanities must be judged. There are the rules of war, there are the agreements of nations, there is the conscience of mankind. All these may be invoked against the raining of death by night from the sky upon private houses, unwarned and undefended. If the attack had been military; if the attempt had been made to drop bombs upon warships, at sea or in port, or upon barracks or fortifications or encampments, or even signal-stations and coast-guard detachments, it would have been terrible, but it would have been lawful. Even so, the large expediency of the raid might have been questioned. But what we have, in the detailed accounts of the bomb-dropping, without notification, in a series of unfortified English towns, is a mere exhibition of ferocity, at once contrary to law and wholly futile.

The laws of war relating to aircraft are as yet in the forming. Effort was made at the Hague Conference to prohibit altogether the dropping of bombs from airships. As only Great Britain and Belgium agreed to this, it is not binding. But let it not be thought that the Conference left the matter there. It established regulations in regard to all bombardments, which apply to aerial as well as naval bombardment. These regulations were entirely disregarded in the air-raid last week in England. For the regulations forbid absolutely "the attack or bombardment by any means whatsoever of towns, villages, habitations, or buildings which are not defended." And in case of defended places, "the commander of an attacking force, before commencing a bombardment, except in the case of an assault, should do all he can to warn the authorities." Nor is this all. The Hague Conference adopted a Preamble, in which the following language was used:

> Until a more complete code of the laws of war is issued, the High Contracting Parties think it right to declare that, in cases not included in the Regulations adopted by them, populations and belligerents remain under the protection and empire of the principles of international law, as they result from the usages established between civilized nations, from the laws of humanity, and the requirements of public conscience.

And it was a German delegate to the Hague Conference, the late Baron Marschall von Bieberstein, who said in his official capacity. "We are not of the opinion that what is not expressly forbidden is permitted. Nor are military operations governed solely by the provisions of international law. There are other factors: conscience, common-sense, and the sense of duty imposed by principles of humanity."

That the London *Daily Mail* should have taken fright at the German propaganda in the United States, and should be calling upon the British and French Governments to begin a campaign to meet it, is only one proof more of that sensational newspaper's ignorance of American affairs. The plain truth is that all the efforts put forth in this country by the German Government have not helped its cause one whit. During the period when the German Ambassador here was voluble, he did more harm than good to his own country. All along, the reticence and official propriety of Sir Cecil Spring-Rice and M. Jusserand, as contrasted with the feverish activity of Count Bernstorff, have been an effective aid to England and France. And as for the labor of changing American sentiment, undertaken by private citizens or semi-official agents like Dr. Dernburg, and by numberless organizations in and out of the fatherland, the whole of it has been in vain. Maximilian Harden perceived this and said it long ago. If the Allies are wise, they will be warned by the German failure not to attempt anything of the kind themselves.

The report of the special committee of the New York State Bar Association on "The Duty of the Courts to Refuse to Execute Statutes in Contravention of the Fundamental Law" is replete with interesting matter. It should be read with special profit by those who imagine that the Supreme Court's power to annul legislation on the ground of unconstitutionality was created out of nothing by John Marshall, and sprang full-armed from his brain. Among the historical facts adduced to the contrary of this notion are those which show the understanding entertained on the subject by a number of the leading members of the Convention which framed the Constitution. This is brought out most pointedly of all in the citations made from the discussion of the proposal to associate the judiciary with the executive in a council of revision, to which acts of Congress would have to be submitted before acquiring the force of law. One after another of the "fathers" is quoted as opposing this plan on the ground that, as Luther Martin put it, the judges should not have a voice in determining legislative policy, while "as to the constitutionality of laws, that point will come before the judges in their official character. In this character they have a negative on the laws. Join them with the executive in the revision and they will have a double negative."

By refusing to make radical alterations in the Rivers and Harbors bill carrying $34,000,000, the House puts a burden upon the Senate. Senator Burton is understood to hold, with others, that no sum much in excess of $25,000,000 is required; the threat of another filibuster is in the air. The House Committee, however, should receive credit for eliminating several objectionable items. One was $5,860,000 for the Sacramento and Feather Rivers, California; another, $4,400,000 for the upper Cumberland River and the Chesapeake and Delaware project. Ap-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

propriations objected to include one of $200,000 for locks and dams on the Brazos River (it is said this would not complete one dam), and one of $500,000 on the Mississippi between the Ohio and the Missouri, where the local engineer recommended only $300,000. Large appropriations for the lower Mississippi were also attacked with vigor by Representative Frear, who holds that the money is used not for navigation but for reclamation. Criticism by the House of the army engineers' judgment should lend weight to the movement for a permanent and expert commission. All told, there seems no good reason why this year's appropriation, added to last year's of $20,000,000, should much exceed the $41,000,000 appropriated in 1913. Regular annual appropriations for rivers and harbors are a new thing.

Despite Representative Mann's uncertainty whether the duties of the Life Saving Service are hazardous, it is to be hoped that the Senate will follow the House in favorable action upon the Coast Guard bill. It combines the Life Saving Service and the Revenue Cutter Service, and gives the men in the former a recognition that they have not previously had. If this bill passes, they will have increased long-service pay and three-fourths retirement pay and allowances. President Wilson has indicated his sympathy with the purpose of the measure. The men to be benefited by it have waited long for the simple justice of having the same sort of reward that is looked upon by army and navy men as a right. If there has been overmuch lobbying on behalf of the bill, this is because those in the Life Saving Service have made up their minds that now is their chance to obtain what is their due. We hope that the amendment providing a penalty for the unlawful use of revenue cutters for private purposes, and said to be aimed at Secretary McAdoo, whether accepted or rejected by the Senate, will not be allowed to delay the bill.

If Mr. Henry Ford succeeded in turning the inmates of Sing Sing into useful citizens, the credit would be due to the man of generous impulses, and not to the shrewd business man. Mr. Ford has repeatedly asserted that the prime secret of his notable achievements as a captain of industry is standardization. Through absolute uniformity and the absolute elimination of waste he has placed himself beyond competition in his field. But the essential characteristic of the prison inmate is that he offers such difficult material to standardize. He represents the waste products of society. Through his own fault, or that of others, society has found it impossible to give him a job in the standardized routine of the world's daily work. It is very likely that the chance to do useful work would reclaim a very large number of Sing Sing's inhabitants, but it must be work offered in the spirit of a patient humanitarianism not expectant of immediate results. Mr. Ford's statement should prove most useful in pricking the conscience of many good citizens who believe in the abstract possibility of reclaiming the convict, but shrink from the trouble and risk involved in giving the ex-convict a concrete job.

"Romance" is one of the unhappy words that have been so sadly overworked as to come to us wan and lifeless when they are really needed. Romance attaches to the formal inauguration on Monday of a through transcontinental telephone line. The fact that the two men at the ends of the wire in New York and San Francisco were the same men who exchanged the first telephonic greetings nearly forty years ago; the vast amount of thought and labor that went into the binding of the Atlantic and the Pacific with a "vital cord," as President Wilson so happily described it; the small army of men guarding the line across 3,500 miles of city streets, farm land, mountain, and desert—all these are sufficient to stir even the modern imagination fed to surfeit on marvels of man's invention. If the formal salutations between New York and San Francisco were somewhat stiff and oratorical, time will remedy the matter.

The National Sculpture Society's appeal to those engaged in the great war, to spare the "world's works of art wherever found," is couched in language whose combination of impressiveness and self-restraint is worthy of all praise. It does not undertake to pass moral judgment on what has been done, but it records an only too undisputed fact in its reference to the irreparable losses that have already been suffered in the destruction or impairment of precious artistic and historic monuments. A special claim to plea for the cessation of such destruction is put forward on behalf of America, in that we, owing to our very youthfulness in these matters, the absence among us of such stores of inherited beauty, realize perhaps more keenly than those to whom they are familiar the priceless-ness of these treasures. That such appeals are worth making, in spite of all that has come and gone, we are convinced. The consciousness that every avoidable act of destruction will be visited with instant condemnation of men of culture the world over cannot fail to exercise some influence upon those who direct the course of war. It is far from unreasonable to suppose, for example, that no such care would have been taken by the Germans as was taken to keep the destruction at Antwerp within the narrowest limits, if the devastation at Louvain had not called forth the indignant resentment of the civilized world.

The poet of Italian aspirations in the north Adriatic is not Signor Marinetti, leader of the Futurists, but a stern singer who most likely would have put Signor Marinetti into Purgatory if Futurism had blossomed forth in the thirteenth century—namely, Dante Alighieri. For more than half a century the text for Irredentist propaganda has been a couplet from the ninth Canto of the Inferno, where the tombs of the city of Dis remind Dante of the necropolis at Pola:

Si com' a Pola, presso del Quarnaro
Che Italia chiude e suoi termini bagna—

"Pola, near the gulf of Quarnaro, which shuts in Italy and bathes its frontiers." This has been cited as inexpugnable proof of Italy's historic claims to the possession of Istria with Trieste. At one time, when Italy's membership in the Triple Alliance was still of recent date, it is said that the authorities frowned upon the citation of Dante's lines in public. On the other hand, to the Italians of the "lost provinces" Dante has been an object of adoration. He has his monument in Trent, and some years ago, when lovers of Dante decided to keep a lamp perpetually lit at the tomb of the poet, it was Trieste which supplied the urn for the oil furnished by citizens of Florence. At Trieste, in 1905, the story is told, an Italian nationalist attended a masked ball in the character of Dante and was arrested for distributing seditious pamphlets. To the magistrate's questions he replied with citations from Dante:

Who are your parents?
E li parenti miei furon Lombardi.
Are you aware of where you are?
Nel mezzo del cammin di nostra vita.
What were you doing at the public assembly?
Mi ritrovai per una selva oscura.

It appears that Italy's statesmen are more cautious than her patriot students of Dante, and before abandoning their neutrality insist on seeing their way clearly instead of plunging into a *selva oscura.*

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THE LAWS OF NEUTRALITY.

The long letter to Senator Stone issued by the Department of State, and signed by Mr. Bryan, will do at least this good, that it will remind all concerned that neutrality in war time is not a matter of whim but of law. It has to be shaped in accordance with the law of nations. It has also to conform to our own statutes, the decisions of our own courts, and our own practice in the past. Rules laid down by us when we were belligerents cannot be lightly tossed aside when we are neutrals. All this seems elementary. Yet some minds it has not penetrated. In Washington, for example, there was held on Sunday a meeting under the auspices of German and Irish associations, at which resolutions were passed demanding, among other things, that "Congress and the President" should "enact immediately such laws as will exactly fix the status of contraband articles." This, of course, would be to make international law by act of Congress.

The chief difficulty arises because many people feel hurt that the Government has gone counter to their own sympathies and wishes. These have been on both sides. It is not only the partisans of Germany that have complained. Friends of the Allies have maintained that the Administration has not adequately represented this country's real attitude, in not having lodged protests with the German Government for assumed violations of international law, and so on. Now, those not in a position of responsibility may look into their own hearts and find the emotions there a guide for themselves, but men charged with the conduct of our foreign relations have to take counsel, not of their own desires, but of the law. They also, as elected rulers in a democracy, have to take cognizance of the attitude of large elements in our citizenship. If any among us are misinformed regarding what the Government has done, and the reasons for it, the Government may well think it its duty to publish the facts. This is what the Department of State has now done. But for giving more heed than this to the ebullitions of popular feeling, on one side or the other, there is no reason. The President and his advisers must sail by a surer chart than unthinking outcry. They can get it only in the law of the land and the public law of nations.

This latest publication by the State Department is no doubt intended to serve the same purpose that was had in mind in giving to the press the American Note to the British Government in protest against certain incidents of the British right of search. Fair-minded writers in the English press have admitted the motive as justifiable. They perceive that the United States has a large number of citizens of German origin, and that the Administration may rightly take steps to show them that the laws of neutrality are impartially enforced. If British pretensions have been overweening, the Government can prove that it has not tamely acquiesced in them. This was made clear in the American Note. It stands out in greater plainness, and with more detail, in the recitals of the letter to Senator Stone. In several matters, the Department of State has protested to the British Government or one of the Allies. It objected to the "hovering" of British cruisers off New York harbor, and that practice has in consequence been given up. In like manner, a Japanese warship, after a protest by us, ceased to "hover" off Honolulu. And in the instance of discouraging the flotation of a public loan here, in the interest of the Allies, the Administration gave the surest proof of its desire to hold the scales absolutely even, where there was no specific provision of law, domestic or international, compelling it to a definite course.

In its references to contraband of war, the Department's letter largely confines itself to a statement of what has been done, in individual cases, with the law and precedent for each. We do not see how this can be effectively challenged. The State Department is very frank in pointing out that the claims of this Government when we were at war, backed up as they were by decisions of the Federal courts, were very much on all fours with the positions taken to-day by the Allies. We may not have been right in all respects; but it does not become us to assert that England or France, for doing the same thing and setting up the same contentions, are wholly in the wrong. The truth is, unquestionably, that a nation that expects to be a neutral is apt to rate very high the rights of neutral trade. England has done this at international congresses, like the one which adopted the Declaration of London; and so has the United States. National interest has swayed opinion about contraband and conditional contraband of war. But the real test, when the pinch comes, is the settled law of nations. It is by this that the Department asserts, with a large citation of instances, that our Government has, as a neutral in this war, sought to abide.

Much confusion of mind has resulted from failing to distinguish between what may be called private neutrality and public. The Government is one thing, the individual American citizen another. The latter may be influenced in his preferences or his judgment by birth, education, or his personal way of estimating the war and its ultimate consequences. And upon him, in his private capacity, the Government can put no bridle. He may express himself as freely as he pleases. But when all is said, the case comes down to the principle illustrated in the story which Prince Bülow tells in his memoirs. At the time of the Boer War, he privately remonstrated with a member of the Reichstag for violent speeches against England. The man replied: "It is my right and duty to express my feelings. But it is your duty as Chancellor to see to it that nothing which I say is allowed to harm our foreign relations." Col. Roosevelt might say the same to President Wilson.

DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR CAREERS.

Details have been given of the provisions of a bill recently passed by both houses of Congress which will affect very profoundly the constitution of our consular service. The leading feature of that bill is that which makes consular appointments refer not to particular locations of service, but to grades in the service as a whole. A man will not be appointed Consul to Glasgow or Valparaiso, but to a certain consular grade. It will then be discretionary with the State Department to what particular consulate in that grade the appointee shall be sent in the first instance, and he may be transferred from one post to another within the grade whenever such transfer may seem advisable in the interest of the service. The result, it appears, will be to make it possible actually to transfer the consulates themselves, closing up the office at one point and opening it at another, if such change seems desirable; but the main object in view is to obtain mobility of personnel and the utilization to the best advantage of such talents and experience as may be possessed by the various members of the consular force. Coming on top of that stability of tenure which seems now to be pretty safely established—in the consular, though not, alas, in the diplomatic service—this arrangement should contribute powerfully towards making ability and ambition the key-words of a real career in the American consular service.

Simultaneously with this an interesting

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

development is taking place in England, relating chiefly to the British diplomatic service, but affecting also the consular. A Royal Commission has just made a report, unanimously recommending changes in the method of obtaining entrance to the diplomatic service, and also in the principles governing the compensation of those in it, which will go far towards democratizing what has been a distinctly aristocratic branch of the public service. Admission to the service has long been conditioned upon the passing of severe examinations; but the privilege of taking the examinations themselves has been dependent, first upon permission granted to the aspirant by the Secretary of State, and secondly, upon approval of the candidate by a board of selection. The consequence has been that practically only those belonging to a certain social class or type have found their way to a diplomatic career; and this result has been further assured by the requirement that an appointee to the lower grades have a private income of at least £400 a year, the salary in the early years of his service being altogether inadequate for the necessary expenses of such a post. The Commission recommends a much freer opening of the examinations, and also the payment of an adequate salary with consequent abolition of the £400 requirement.

In the British civil service generally, as everybody knows, the competitive examination system is completely dominant. The diplomatic service is an exception, and everybody recognizes the force of the reasons for making this exception. Personal qualities of a kind that examinations cannot test are of peculiar and even critical importance in a member of the diplomatic corps. Accordingly, it is not proposed by any one to make appointments to that corps purely by intellectual competition; yet this move—for the Commission's recommendation will doubtless shortly be followed by action—is grounded perhaps as much on confidence in the efficacy of the examination test as on the desire to make the service more democratic. Room is to be left for personal judgment on the part of the appointing power, but it is desired to give the examination test as wide scope and as great influence as possible. Intelligent Englishmen are no more blind than anybody else to the incompleteness, and in some respects even the undesirability, of examinations as the criterion of fitness, but what they recognize is that no other method has yet been found which begins to compare with it in all-round efficacy.

As to one very important part of this proposed British programme, it is high time we were acting likewise. It is a gross anomaly, in a democratic country like ours, that a whole great class of posts in the public service should be open only to men of wealth. The chief men in the British diplomatic service have, of course, always had high salaries, besides being furnished with permanent residences at the capitals to which they were accredited; and now it is proposed to make the younger attachés also independent of private resources for the means of living in the style necessary to their position. With us, these obvious requirements of a diplomatic post have been persistently ignored so far as the law is concerned, while, of course, they have to be taken into account in the actual appointments. The time is certainly ripe for the establishment of a system which shall provide our Ambassadors and Ministers with suitable residences, salaries, and allowances, and which shall also take into account the actual social demands that have to be met by attachés in the various legations and embassies. To pretend that we are maintaining democratic standards by paying low salaries, and making small or no allowances for expenses, is an absurdity when the actual consequence is that nobody can be appointed to the positions unless he has abundant means of his own. To remove this difficulty, as well as to make tenure secure, is necessary if we are to make our diplomatic service a career truly open to talent and attractive to men of ability.

THE FORWARD-LOOKING CITY.

In the nomination of a fusion candidate for Mayor, Chicago has taken a step that is new in her history. She has at times had independent candidates, notably John Maynard Harlan, son of the late Justice; but as in the first election in New York after the consolidation with Brooklyn, the insistence of the Republican organization on having a candidate of its own has only made the success of the Democratic nominee the more certain. Even now, the fusion arrangements lack the completeness that marked those in this city at the last Mayoralty election. There is not in Chicago a large body of Democrats, as there is here, ready to throw aside their partisanship for the sake of better government. Fusion there, thus far, means little more than union of Republicans, Progressives, and non-partisans, although this deficiency is somewhat supplied by the habit, which we have yet to form, of voting for candidates for the City Council with regard to what the Municipal Voters' League has said about them rather than with regard to the tickets they are on. No one will be sanguine of success for the fusion candidate, therefore, especially when the result of the last Mayoralty election is recalled. Alderman Merriam, for whom non-partisans would naturally have voted, despite his Republican label, was defeated by the present Mayor. Yet he had won the Republican nomination hands down, while Harrison had beaten Dunne, now Governor, by only a thousand votes. Evidently, the Republican bosslets cannot be counted upon to support a Republican nominee whom they do not approve, while their Democratic brethren can.

In this slow advance towards an administration of its affairs upon a basis of progress rather than politics, Chicago is typical of American cities. The usual explanation of this laggardness in a country that likes to boast its enterprise has been that we take too little interest in politics, and that we are too partisan and too tolerant of evil, or, in more complimentary phrase, too good-natured. This explanation is rejected by Frederic C. Howe in his new book, "The Modern City and Its Problems" (Charles Scribner's Sons). Our neglect, our partisanship, our excessive tolerance are only too apparent, but they are consequences rather than causes. Our fear of governmental interference of any kind had for one of its corollaries the shackling of the city. Municipal charters were notable for their restrictions rather than their grants. Powerlessness in turn bred self-distrust, and we gave away—save for what corrupt officials obtained—valuable franchises; we allowed foul tenements to spring up, and priceless waterfronts to be seized. In a word, the American city has been and still is "negative in its functions, rather than positive in its services."

Just how correct this analysis may be, we need not inquire. Our cities are negative rather than positive in their public activities, and the fact is evidenced in two ways. We are still fighting for honest rather than capable administration, and we are still resisting the encroachment of private upon public interests instead of laying down a positive programme of municipal development. Of the former struggle, almost every election in our chief centres is witness; of the latter, we should have had one more example at the time of the drafting of New York subway contracts, had it not been for the enlightened view and the determined will of a few men who were fortunately in positions of author-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ity. For whom should the city build, the stockholders of its rapid-transit companies or its citizens? In the end, the lines were planned with the purpose of directing the movement of population into desirable sections, and not merely of accommodating existing traffic, without regard to conditions a few years hence. A negative policy has also the disadvantage of piling up obstacles that must be got out of the way before a positive policy can be entered upon, thus adding to the natural difficulties of the latter. In other words, there is no such thing as a negative policy, but only a choice of positive advantage or positive disadvantage. Choose a "negative" policy of city planning for a few generations, and you wake up to find that you have chosen a positive set of conditions that nothing but a large expenditure of energy can alter. Few of our cities have had the foresight that impressed Bryce on the occasion of the laying of the cornerstone of the Capitol of Bismarck, North Dakota. The site chosen was not in the city and not even on the skirts of the city, but nearly a mile distant, "on the top of a hill in the brown and dusty prairie." The visitor's inference that the intention was to enclose the building in a park was corrected by the explanation that the Capitol was planned for the centre of the city: "it is in this direction that the city is to grow."

If this was bumptiousness upon Bismarck's part, it is a bumptiousness that, rightly restrained and wisely directed, might have stood New York and Chicago in good stead. Nothing has been too ambitious for our private undertaking, nor have our cities been backward in proclaiming their aspirations for a population that would lift them a notch in the list of the ten or twenty or fifty largest American communities. But our looking forward has hardly begun to go beyond this primitive stage. Mr. Howe does the nation a service by emphasizing the necessity of a change in our attitude in this respect. At the same time, it is possible to look so far forward as to make the thoughtful hesitate to set out on the path. The city that is in Mr. Howe's eyes is a pretty thoroughly socialized centre, with the municipality performing a host of activities that are now left to private enterprise. Coöperation, in his words, "will continue to crowd out private initiative." To some extent, this is doubtless true. But it is no more the part of wisdom to accept the substitution of public for private management as a matter of course than it was to reject it in the same blind fashion.

THE GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD'S REPORT.

Twelve years after its foundation, the General Education Board has issued the first full report of its activities. This is bound to attract widespread attention, not only because of the inquiry just undertaken by the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations, but because of the unprecedented magnitude of its funds. It is idle, of course, to expect that those who, like the chairman of the Industrial Commission, have prejudged the case of the General Education Board will be influenced by the report; while those who for various reasons regretted the establishment of the Board will not, of course, have their original opinions changed. But educators everywhere, and statesmen, too, will turn to this volume in order to see how wisely the money is being expended and to ascertain what, if any, are the theories underlying the distribution of the enormous income available.

Into the treasury of the Board Mr. Rockefeller has paid $53,000,000, of which nearly $25,000,000 of principal and of accrued income were bestowed upon the University of Chicago and the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research. At present, in addition to a fund of $200,000 given by the late Anna T. Jeannes, of Philadelphia, the Board possesses a trifle under forty millions of dollars, which yields an income of $2,417,079.26. Up to June 30, 1914, it had distributed $15,894,364.89, at a cost in administrative expense of only $304,794.99, barring which every cent has gone directly to educational work. Thus, to colleges and universities $10,582,591.80 has been paid, almost equally divided among the Eastern and Middle, the Southern, and the Western States, and, being usually given on the condition of raising an additional amount elsewhere, this ten and a half millions has brought into the treasuries of the colleges almost forty millions from other benefactors, spurred to action by the General Board's bait. Thus, if Mr. Rockefeller has subverted our college liberties by these gifts, as some aver, he has the satisfaction of having made thousands of others share with him in the crime. There can be no doubt that some who have been "held up" by college presidents to help them "earn" the General Board's gifts have an adverse opinion of the Board and of Mr. Rockefeller and of this policy.

But the Board is certain that its activities have cost the aided institutions nothing in the way of freedom to meet their own problems in their own way. Indeed, it thinks that the very opposite has happened, and that its gifts have been the means of arousing new effort. This we believe to be true. We do not, however, subscribe unqualifiedly to the sentiment in the report that "an institution's usefulness grows with its financial strength." That may be true of a bank, or an oil company, but it is by no means necessarily true of a college, in which the vital character of the teaching and its educational standards are of infinitely greater importance than its financial strength. There have been plenty of small institutions, crippled as to funds, that yet turned out well-taught and really educated men who knew the values of scholarship and of life, while the opposite has been true of some wealthy colleges. This may be an unintentionally commercial note, but it is one that the General Board should be the last to emphasize. It is only fair to say, however, that nothing like it is found elsewhere, and that the three main features of the college policy of the General Education Board are thoroughly to be commended. They are: preference for locations in centres of wealth and population; systematic and helpful coöperation with religious denominations, and the concentration of gifts in the form of endowments. The Board has been much more tactful and useful in coördinating and consolidating institutions and preventing duplication than, for obvious reasons, appears in the report. It has already exerted a profound influence upon the development of the schools of higher learning in America.

Among its other interests has been the aiding of medical schools, miscellaneous schools, and negro institutions. Towards farm demonstrations and the organization of boys' and girls' clubs it has expended, North and South, nearly a million dollars. The support of professors of secondary education and of rural school agents and a rural organization service has called for other large sums. As for the matter of negro education, it has been a disappointment that the Board has given but $699,781 of its $15,894,364 to negro schools. Its policy has been to stimulate the States to do more for their public schools for the colored people, and to upbuild the rural school through school agents, coöperation with the Jeannes Fund, etc. But of its great income it is plain that, in proportion, it has given even less towards the colored race than have the several States in the South. Yet the colored race is far needier educationally than are the whites. It is greatly to be hoped that the coming

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

year will see a branching out in this direction, for he who helps the negro schools in the South serves both races and takes one of the surest steps towards reducing race friction. Particularly do the rural private industrial schools for the negro, of the Tuskegee type, need aid, for they are the only training schools for teachers for the great bulk of the public schools.

REGIONAL ART MUSEUMS.

There was dedicated the other day in Minneapolis an art museum which is the first of its kind in the tier of States between Chicago and Portland. "This opening of the new building of the Minneapolis Institute of Arts," declared the *Bellman*, "marks the beginning of a new period in the artistic development of the whole Northwest. . . . Achieving a distinguished collection is a matter of time, but the provision of such a home in the Northwest is itself a promise." No one acquainted with the Chicago Art Institute, the Crocker Gallery at Sacramento, flourishing twenty years ago, or the San Francisco and Portland galleries, would subscribe to the *Bellman's* implication that the East pretends to a monopoly of art. But the importance which the Northwest attaches to this new exponent of its regional art tendencies is significant. The trans-Mississippi West has recently felt an interest in art to which the Panama Exposition, with its guarantee fund of $500,000 for pictures to remain permanently in California, cannot fail to give as great an impetus as the Centennial and Chicago expositions did to other sections of the country.

The multiplication of regional and municipal art museums seems little short of wonderful when we reflect that prior to 1876 we had virtually none. It was true of America till the Philadelphia exhibit, as of England till that of the Crystal Palace in 1851, that public interest in art scarcely existed. The result could be traced in lamentable standards of furniture, interior decoration, and architecture. But Haydon's defence of the English people would have fitted Americans. Show them fine works, he said, in effect, give them the opportunity of study, teach them the basis of beauty in art, and then give your opinion, if you like; but you have no right to condemn the nation when you offer them none of the advantages foreigners enjoy, when they have no schools of design, no galleries open to public view, and when you refuse to allow art a public function and resolutely withhold all public support. A report to the French Government in 1893 showed considerable art collections only at New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Chicago, Washington, Detroit, St. Louis, and Cincinnati. Of these but a few were more than twenty years old. The Metropolitan Museum was founded in 1869; the Corcoran Gallery was given to the city of Washington the same year. The Boston Museum of Fine Arts was established in 1870. To-day it is stated that of the 600 museums of all sorts in America, 300 are devoted wholly or largely to art.

Many of these museums are working directly for American art. Until a few years ago, no museum gave an adequate idea of American art from West, Stuart, and Copley to Inness, Wyant, and Martin. Now, thanks to Charles Haydon's gift of 1905 to the Boston Museum, that institution has a rich and fast enlarging collection of American paintings. The Temple collection of the Pennsylvania Academy dates from 1886, and is due to a fund from which $1,800 annually is paid for an American canvas, the work of Chase, Brush, and Alexander being notably represented. The chronological collection of the Carnegie Institute of Pittsburgh is, by the terms of the donation, to represent the progress of painting in America since 1906; two prizes being offered, and not less than two paintings purchased each year. The Corcoran Gallery spends most of its annual income of $25,000 for American paintings. Probably no institution is doing more in this line than the Chicago Art Institute. Its director asserts that it has "the most important contemporary collection of sculpture in America." In painting, forty art clubs unite with private benefactors to purchase local and national works yearly; and the art school, our third oldest, enrolls over 3,000 students. There are also galleries which cultivate localism, as the John Herron Art Institute of Indianapolis, with its group of Indiana painters, and paintings of Hoosier interest, as Sargent's portrait of Riley. At the Panama Exposition a special effort will be made to show the Pacific Coast school.

Every new largely planned public collection in this country is thus at once a market for meritorious American work, and a stimulus to taste and knowledge. The service of regional art galleries to industrial education alone—a field in which there is so great recent activity—would more than justify their increase.

RELIEF FOR THE UNEMPLOYED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As usual, we must look to Germany for guidance. For the sake of brevity I have set down below, in chronological form, the various steps by which the twin cities of Laputa-Weissnichtwo met and surmounted a severe crisis of unemployment during the hard winter of 1908-09:

December 10—Burgomaster of Laputa-Weissnichtwo appoints Unemployment Committee of 1,250 distinguished citizens.

December 12—Burgomaster addresses Unemployment Committee at a dinner in the grand ball-room of the Hotel Bingen.

December 13—Unemployment Committee appoints the following sub-committees: (a) Preamble and By-Laws, (b) Ethics and Food Values, (c) Statistics, (d) Stationery and Dictographs, (e) Publicity, (f) Minimum Wage, Immigration, and Hook Worm, (g) Unemployment Abroad—China, Peru, Tasmania, Przemysl, etc.

December 18—Burgomaster speaks at dinner of Automobile Manufacturers at Hotel Altdorf.

December 19—Burgomaster speaks at dinner of Sanitary Engineers at Hotel Leroy.

December 21—Burgomaster speaks at luncheon of Associated Picture Dealers.

December 23—Waiters' Union reports notable reduction of unemployment.

December 27—Committee on Statistics announces appointment of the following subcommittees on classification of the unemployed: (a) By geographical origin, (b) by color of the eyes, (c) Binet test.

December 30—Burgomaster addresses letter to Register of Municipal Treasury.

December 31—Register of Treasury addresses letter to Fire Commissioner.

January 10—Fire Commissioner addresses letter to Burgomaster.

January 12—Stenographers' Union reports distinct decrease of unemployment.

January 31—Chairman of Unemployment Committee holds long conversation over the telephone with Burgomaster.

February 4—Burgomaster holds long telephone conversation with Commissioner of Bridges.

February 10—Commissioner of Bridges calls up Bridge Commissioner of Düsseldorf on the long distance.

February 15—Telephone company hires 500 girls.

March 1—Burgomaster speaks at dinner of professors of Romance languages at Hotel Beaulieu.

March 10—Committee on Statistics hires 200 investigators and 50 experts on malnutrition.

April 15—Malnutrition experts present two-volume report on blood-pressure as an index of starvation.

May 1—Committee on Unemployment at a dinner at Hotel Blücher reports progress.

In brief, sir, by the 15th of July the unemployed problem had been solved. The activities of the Committee had been the direct cause of providing employment for 3,000 hotel waiters, 450 special investigators and 1,400 ordinary investigators, 1,800 telephone girls, 3,452 stenographers and clerks, 300 newspaper reporters, and at least 34,000 employees in office-furniture factories, paper mills, ink-supply houses, provision stores, souvenir factories, and the like. What was left of the army of the unemployed disappeared with the warm weather.

Efficiency.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Chronicle of the War

Hard fighting has taken place on most of the fronts, both east and west, during the past week, but there has occurred virtually no change in the relative positions of the opposing forces. The village of St. Georges, near Nieuport, the occupation of which was so violently contested for a long time and which has now been in French hands for several weeks, was reported to have been recaptured by the Germans last week, but the official dispatches have made no mention of the capture, and from Tuesday's reports which record hard fighting at a point east of St. Georges, it would appear that the Allies have maintained their hold on the place. Elsewhere on the western front no change of importance has taken place, unless it be the destruction of the German pontoon bridges across the Meuse at St. Mihiel by French artillery. At the bridge-heads in the tip of the wedge, which the Germans have held with such tenacity at this point, there are probably but few troops, and the possible cutting off of supplies from these by the destruction of the bridge will not therefore be a particularly serious matter. The fact, however, that the French have been able to demolish the bridge would seem to indicate that they have approached near enough to St. Mihiel itself to make the force of their artillery fire effective in their attempts to recapture the position.

On the eastern front the official accounts have been somewhat puzzling. Thus dispatches from Petrograd on Monday, mentioning Austrian attacks in the neighborhood of Jasliska, would seem to indicate that the Austrians had again returned through the Carpathians in Galicia; yet the Austrian official report on Tuesday speaks only of fighting in the Carpathians. There seems to be no doubt, at any rate, that the Austrian armies in Hungary have once more been heavily reinforced. We hear of suspension of traffic on the lines leading into Hungary, and Russia reports "a certain animation and activity among the Austrians among all the Carpathian passes, beginning with that of Dukla." Meanwhile, on the Bzura and Nida Rivers, no serious offensive appears to have been undertaken by the Teutonic Allies, except in the region of Borjimow, where slight progress is reported by Berlin, and we may conclude that the immediate object of the Austrian and German General Staffs is to check the Russian advance in Hungary and Bukowina. In Northern Poland German and Russian forces have been in close contact in the neighborhood of Mlawa, and in East Prussia we hear of fighting southeast of Gumbinnen, which is twenty miles within the border. Simultaneously the accounts of fighting around Kielce, which has been variously reported as in occupation of the Russian and of the Austro-German forces, would seem to indicate an attempted Russian offensive in the direction of the Pilica River, with Cracow as its objective. In the Caucasus the Russian troops, after their victories at Ardahan and on the border, seem to have been arrested, and it appears probable that, as we suggested two weeks ago might prove to be the case, they are not numerically strong enough to push forward to the attack of Erzerum.

Another raid by German cruisers on the coast towns of England on January 24 was frustrated by the British cruiser squadron, consisting of five battle-cruisers, under the command of Vice-Admiral Sir David Beatty. The German squadron, comprising three battle-cruisers and an armored cruiser, was sighted at 9:30 on the morning of January 24. It immediately made for its home port and the British squadron gave chase. A running fight lasting four hours ensued, in the course of which the German armored cruiser Blücher was sunk, and, according to the report of the British Admiralty, two other battle-cruisers were seriously damaged. On approaching the area of German mines and submarines, the British squadron stopped the pursuit. British casualties consisted of fourteen killed and twenty-nine wounded; the Lion and Meteor were somewhat damaged. The Berlin official report states that a British battle-cruiser was sunk in the fight, but this is specifically denied by the British report, and remembering similar reports from Berlin after the battle off the Falkland Isles, it is probably safe to accept the British statement. The engagement was fought at long range, and the result appears to demonstrate the superiority of the British 13.5-inch gun over the German 12-inch, a superiority which before the war was not conceded by German experts. It is thought that the light cruiser and destroyer squadrons were also engaged, but the result of the engagement has not, as we write, been made known.

The long-threatened attack by Zeppelins on the coast of England finally took place on the night of January 19, when a squadron of dirigibles, variously reported as numbering three or four, passed over Yarmouth and some other towns and villages on the east coast and dropped bombs. Four persons were killed. We comment elsewhere on what may be termed the moral aspect of this affair, only noting here that the towns raided, despite the official German description of them as "fortified," are open and undefended places. What practical purpose from the German point of view the raid can have served it is difficult to guess at and would be unprofitable to speculate on. From a military point of view the attack was at the best utterly futile. Its moral effect in England, however, may be imagined to have been considerable, for it has had three results for which England should feel properly grateful. It has stimulated recruiting; it has still further alienated opinion in neutral countries from the cause of Germany; it has demonstrated that the Zeppelin has been in anticipation a much overrated weapon of offensive warfare. The last point is particularly noteworthy. It should be susceptible of mathematical demonstration that the chances of hitting with a bomb a given object from a height of 3,000 feet (the Zeppelin can hardly descend lower on account of the large mark it offers to anti-aircraft guns) are extremely slight. For offensive work as well as for scouting it would seem that the aeroplane is a more effective weapon. It offers but a small mark to gun fire, and on arriving over its objective it can swoop down and aim its bomb from a height of only two or three hundred feet. The report of the destruction dealt last week by British airmen to the works at Essen, which appears to be fairly well substantiated, tends to confirm the impression of the superiority of the aeroplane to the Zeppelin.

Foreign Correspondence

A MILLION MORE MEN FOR THE WAR—THE MYSTERY OF A BATTLESHIP—LLOYD GEORGE CANONIZED.

By SIR HENRY LUCY.

WESTMINSTER, January 16.

When the war started, Sir John French found himself in command of an expeditionary force the numerical strength of which moved to expression of contempt the War Lord whose armies are mustered by the million men. In the spring we shall have in the field not less than six armies, each consisting of three army corps, and each commanded by famous fighting generals. Before the House of Commons adjourned for the recess it had voted estimates providing for additions to the army amounting to 1,186,400 men. Within little more than three months from the present time the odd million, fully trained, splendidly equipped, will be in the fighting line.

Nor does this levy, representing the finest manhood of the country, complete the ordered plan. Since fighting began the ranks of the expeditionary force have been filled up by reinforcements at the rate of 10,000 a month. It is obvious that to maintain that proportion with a million men in arms will require far larger resources in the way of home reserve. It is accordingly intended, as soon as the first million are completed, to raise another, to be forthwith trained and equipped, ready to reinforce the six armies in the field. A question urgently asked by men in what is known as Kitchener's army, a curiosity shared by the public, is, when will they begin to remove into the fighting line? Lord Kitchener is prone to keep his own secrets. I have, however, very good reason to believe that before April is many days old there will be a British army a million strong allied with the augmented force of France grimly setting about the task of driving the Germans over their frontier.

The destruction of the Formidable in the early hours of the New Year created a profoundly painful sensation. Had the ship gone down with her gallant crew fighting, there would be a certain sense of consolation. The Formidable foundered between 3 and 3:30 in the morning. Before noon a communication from the Secretary of the Admiralty reached the newspaper offices giving the fullest particulars to hand. This fact has close bearing upon an incident that for more than two months has mystified the public. Though it has been the topic of conversation wherever two or three Englishmen have met together, the supervision of the Censor has hitherto prevented its being recorded and commented upon in the press. The spell has been broken in no less unexpected a quarter than the pages of the *Quarterly Review*, and it may therefore be presumed that the ban has been removed. In the pages of the *Quarterly* it is related in detail how the first-class battleship Audacious, cruising off the coast of Ireland, foundered after contact either with a mine or a torpedo. The incident was, it is alleged, witnessed by the crews of several passing vessels, including an American liner bound for New York. On her arrival at that port, the news was published in all the papers, the *Tribune*, among others, having circumstantial accounts contributed by eyewitnesses. The German papers eagerly snapped

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

up the news, while the English papers made no sign.

As the *Quarterly* says, attempt to conceal serious loss has a lamentably ill effect upon the public mind. It is not open criticism which sows distrust and want of confidence. It is the feeling that matters which the public ought to be acquainted with are painstakingly withheld from their knowledge. But are the Admiralty guilty of the charge brought against them? Is the Audacious at the bottom of the sea, or is she at this moment in Belfast undergoing repairs? There are people who aver that within their personal knowledge the latter is the fact. The promptitude with which the Admiralty communicated to the public the loss of the Formidable indicates that either they were innocent of effort to hush up disaster on the Irish coast, or that, profiting by experience, they have abandoned a foolish and futile policy of concealment.

The reopening of the Stock Exchange this week marks a notable episode in the story of a grave crisis. Declaration of war with Germany precipitated a panic which threatened the stability of the financial fabric not only in this country, but throughout two hemispheres. Had British credit broken down, a prospect which for some anxious hours darkened the city, the crash would have been followed by a general *débâcle*. The London market had for some weeks been undermined by the action of sellers from Berlin and Vienna. Secretly informed of the imminence of the war, that the Kaiser to-day laments was forced upon him by perfidious England, German and Austrian financiers unloaded on the London market huge quantities of stock. This conspiracy served a double purpose. It enabled them to fleece the hated English, while the natural effect upon the market would so far weaken it that it must topple over on the declaration of war.

Fortunately for England and the world at large, the supreme control of the situation was in the hands of a strong, resolute man, unhampered by slavish submission to precedent. Instantly realizing the near approach of financial earthquake, Mr. Lloyd George summoned to Downing Street the heads of the great banks and the principal leaders of the Stock Exchange. Assisted by the Lord Chief Justice, who served apprenticeship on the Stock Exchange, he took counsel with these authorities. The result was edicts closing the Stock Exchange, temporarily raising the bank rate to ten per cent., establishing a moratorium for debts, and authorizing a lavish issue of one-pound and ten-shilling notes.

The influence of this prompt action was immediate. Thousands of long-established firms which had suddenly found themselves on the brink of destruction regained their equilibrium. General credit was restored, and trade, for the moment paralyzed, revived, and is today in a condition that varies surprisingly little from that established in normal times. It is one of the larger ironies of life that two short years ago Mr. Lloyd George and the Lord Chief Justice, known at the time as Mr. Rufus Isaacs, objects of the City's profoundest distrust and dislike, find themselves on the opening of the New Year enthroned in its highest esteem, its profoundest gratitude. So predominant is the feeling that no one need be surprised to find Gog and Magog, legendary deities of the city, removed from their places in Guildhall, the Chancellor of the Exchequer and the Lord Chief Justice being installed on their pedestals.

The death of Gen. Kelly-Kenny revives memories of the Boer War, whose blundering administration from home contrasts so grewsomely with the achievements of to-day in face of graver peril and far wider range of action. He commanded with distinction the Sixth Division during Lord Roberts's march on Bloemfontein. I made his acquaintance some five or six years ago under the favorable circumstances attendant upon a three weeks' "cure" at Homburg. It is the general custom of the place to take the first of the canonical three glasses of water at half-past seven in the morning, the others at intervals through an hour's marching up and down the tree-shaded alleys. Having met Kelly-Kenny at a little dinner given by the Speaker of the House of Commons, a fellow patient, we foregathered morning after morning, he talking with instructive freedom about the general muddle of matters in South Africa during the war.

SURGERY AND MEDICINE IN THE WAR —THE GARIBALDIANS—INSTRUCTION IN FRENCH SCHOOLS.

PARIS, January 7.

A feeble compensation for the terrific mortality of this terrible war may be found in the interesting and profitable experience which is being gained by physicians and surgeons. A young Frenchman, eighteen years old, has constructed successfully an automobile operating ambulance with radiographic equipment for cases of wounds which need immediate surgical intervention, that is, practically on the field of battle. The motor car has a dynamo supplying the electricity necessary for the radiography; and the body of the car is arranged with all the necessary accommodations for the surgical operation. A light tent, easily raised, serves as the dark chamber; and the radiograph is taken over the wounded man lying on a bed specially fitted for the purpose. The plate is developed at once. Dr. Landouzy had already introduced gelatine films instead of the glass plates hitherto used for radiography; they are light, easily carried and handled, do not break, and are not inflammable—and they are 75 per cent. cheaper than glass. They are flexible, and can be fitted to the wounded part and even be introduced into the wound. With the radiograph showing the course and final position of the projectile embedded in the wound, the surgeon operates in the motor car itself. This automobile operating-room has been tried and approved by Gen. d'Amade and a committee of army surgeons, and it is already in use.

Prof. Pierre Delbet has brought before the Académie de Médecine three wounded soldiers in whom fracture of the thigh has been treated by his new apparatus. This dispenses with the ordinary plaster, which does not allow the wound to be dressed and condemns the patient to immobility for a long time. The apparatus is an application of that which Dr. Delbet already used for the arm. It forms a single block solidly with the thigh; and the wounded men, with its assistance, were enabled to rise after twelve or fourteen days. After twenty-two days they could walk about on crutches, swinging the broken leg backwards and forwards; and one was able to walk with the knee free. It is an extension apparatus of rods with springs, and so dovetailed that the length and extension can be regulated at pleasure. The patient is really seated on the apparatus, allowing certain movements of relief and walking at a much earlier period than was obtained by former methods.

An apparatus for the easy application of cold baths to typhoid patients, in any place and at any time, is also being used. The French Academy seems satisfied that this treatment gives by far the best results. The treatment with colloidal gold, which has been advocated lately, failed to obtain the approbation of the Academy, both on theoretic grounds and the results of experience.

Blood tells—*bon chien chasse de race*—was never better verified than in the Garibaldi lineage. The great General came of a line of Nice sailors, when sailing the Mediterranean meant adventure against—or with—corsairs. His own first experience, after the Austrians chased him away with other sixteen-year-old comrades of Mazzini's Young Italy, was in sailing back and forth to Tunis. Then he went off to South America and, in the course of a revolution, abducted the heroine, who became his wife. She was faithful through all adventures unto her death during his escape from San Marino in 1849. Their younger son, Ricciotti Garibaldi, has himself been engaged in various wars—in 1870 with the French against the *Tedeschi*, always hated of his father, and twice afterwards in Greece. He has now given his six sons to fight with France; and two of them—Bruno and Constantino—are already dead in battle. To President Poincaré's condolences for the death of Bruno, the youngest and the first to fall, he answered, on the fourth day of the New Year:

For us who are convinced and sincere friends of the glorious France which began in 1793 the great work of human redemption whose last chapter is being written to-day, to die for this work is to die for France, for Italy, for humanity. I am very proud that the first of our family to die on the field of battle has found his fate on the beloved soil of France and in the glorious and honored uniform of the French army. When I bade farewell for a time to my valiant sharpshooters at the end of the Terrible Year (1870), it was with the firm conviction that victory and revenge were sure. I am very happy to have lived until now, when the day is near. One of my sons has fallen; well, there are five remaining [the second was killed the day after the aged father wrote these words]. And, after them, there still remains the old head of the Fourth Brigade [sharpshooters of 1870]—and with him the heart of all Italy.

The dating of the work of the French Revolution for humanity from 1793 refers to the *levée en masse*—the permanent calling out of the whole nation for army service against the coalition of invaders. Only at the end of that fateful year did Revolutionary France become victorious over her enemies and begin effectively that conquest of Europe for the people which Ricciotti Garibaldi describes as the work of "human redemption." Whatever may be thought of the resistance of Germany and Austria to Democracy, which has been steadily rising ever since, it is certain that the spirit of Mazzini and Garibaldi is still against them throughout Italy. From the beginning of the present war, this spirit has made impossible all alliance with the two empires.

The Italian volunteers, who are thus fighting and dying for "France, Italy, and humanity," are led by the eldest of Ricciotti's six sons, the one who bears the name of his grandfather—Giuseppe Garibaldi. He is said to resemble the great General wonderfully, both morally and physically. He fought with the Cubans against Spain, and, when this

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

war broke out, he was a "general" in some one of the Mexican armies. He left at once for Europe and began organizing these Italian battalions. The French Government gave him the rank of lieutenant-colonel, and he and his men are fighting amid the forests of the Argonne, whose battles will have a greater place in military history than they have had in the newspapers from official communications. It was while trying to carry a German trench that these Garibaldians had their baptism of fire. Forty of them were killed in the deluge of balls and shrapnel; and among them was Bruno Garibaldi, who fought as a sub-lieutenant. When the news was brought to the father, he exclaimed: "Heaven grant I may not have to weep for the others!" Now, a week later, a second of his six sons has fallen.

Those who have followed closely what Italian patriots fondly call the "Garibaldian cycle" remember that the great General's latest activity, with the door of the tomb opening before him, was employed prematurely for a purpose which may yet decide the result of the present war—the incorporation of the Italian populations of Austria—*Italia irredenta*—with United Italy. And it was stimulated by disappointment at the Congress of Berlin cutting short Italian hopes and aggrandizing Austria by giving her Bosnia and Herzegovina—which is a far-off cause of the present war. It was in 1878. With Garibaldi were associated two of the veterans of 1848—Aurelio Saffi, a triumvir with Mazzini of the short-lived Roman Republic, and Gen. Avezzana. A provisional government at Trieste was planned, but it ended with Garibaldi's death and the execution of Oberdan.

The school system of France, as is well known, forms a single whole from the lowest primary, through secondary to the highest teaching of the University. Over all this presides the one Minister of Public Instruction. It is the Government's wish that all the students of France shall receive from the war waging at their frontier and in their midst the utmost civic instruction for the future. First, the opening lesson of all classes—usually a formal lecture—has treated of the outbreak of war, its methods, and the principle that Might makes Right on which the war turns. This was observed in their own manner by famous university professors like Emile Boutroux, Bergson, Lavisse, and the others. In the numerous colleges of the Paris district, M. Liard, vice-rector of the University, has had the professors study with their pupils leading articles of the London *Times* and other foreign journals, so that they may know what the world at large thinks of the present action of France and Frenchmen. In all the classes, also, according to their capacities, documentary lessons are given. Each day, in one of the most frequented Paris colleges, the news given by one of the principal papers, comprising the official communications of the Allies and of Germans and Austrians as well, are followed out on detailed maps, analyzed, compared, and criticised. Besides the local knowledge of the war thus obtained, there is a certain reasonable opinion conveyed by the students to their families. It is easy to understand what influence this may exert against over-confidence or depression excited by exaggerating what are, after all, little more than "tactical" incidents of little importance in the essential "strategy," and still less warranting any surmises as to decisive action. This is a true civic education in calm and deliberate judgment during trying times. S. D.

Oxford at War

THE DEPLETED UNIVERSITY — THOSE WHO WANTED TO FIGHT AND THOSE WHO DID NOT—THE GALLANT "LAST-DITCHERS."

By L. P. JACKS.

OXFORD, January 1.

At the moment it is not accurately known how many undergraduates will return to the University for the coming term. The reason of the uncertainty is that some who have applied for commissions in the army have not yet received appointments from the War Office. But it is probable that out of a normal total of 3,500, not more than 750 will be returning, certainly not more than 1,000. And of those who do return the number will be rapidly reduced as the pending commissions are allotted. This mere numerical fact will enable any Harvard or Yale man to picture in its broad outline the extent of the change that has come over Oxford. Many of the colleges are virtually emptied of their students. The audience of the lecturer is being reduced to vanishing point. And the falling off is in quality as well as in quantity. The best—morally, intellectually, physically—have gone. With rare exceptions only the weaklings remain. Under these circumstances it is not to be wondered at that many teachers make no secret of the difficulty they feel in maintaining the vital interest of their work.

The undergraduates of Oxford who have joined the army may be broadly divided into two classes — those who wanted to join and those who did not. To the former class belongs the vigorous young Briton given to sport rather than to study, and always eager for a "scrap." To the latter belong the scholars and idealists. To some extent the two classes overlap, for the vigorous young Briton is often an idealist, and the scholar is often eager for a "scrap." It is at the point where the two classes do not overlap that the distinction becomes most interesting. Both those who wanted and those who did not want to fight are to be honored, but on the whole I think that the higher honors should be given to those who, as men of peace and culture, shrank from the business before them. Of their state of mind an instructive illustration was given me not long ago by the remark of a very brilliant undergraduate of Balliol, now on his way to the front. "I look upon the profession of arms," he said, "with unutterable loathing. But, by heaven, I will not stay here and let the other fellows fight for me without taking a hand myself!" That struck me as a fine saying; one, moreover, that went straight to the heart of a great moral problem. I dare say the same remark has often been made in similar circumstances.

And in this connection I may quote the substance of a discussion I recently had with a young Quaker, whose whole character I greatly esteem, especially for its courage. He had been explaining to me how his principles forbade him to enlist. On the negative point of not fighting the explanation was perfectly clear. But when I asked him how a man was to reconcile, on Christian principles, his acceptance of security, peace, and comfort for the defence of which his friends and fellows were vicariously shedding their blood, his explanations became too subtle to be convincing. Certainly, some of our best young men would not have enlisted if the problem were simply that of deciding whether or no they would fight themselves. But this problem, they found, did not stand alone. It was complicated by the further question as to whether they were content that others should fight the battle on their behalf. To this question they gave an emphatic negative. These will make good soldiers. Plato tells us that the only men fit to be entrusted with power over their fellows are those who do not desire the power. May it not be true that the best soldiers are, in the long run, those who do not want to fight?

The "Roll of Honor" of Oxford men who have fallen in the war is already very long and it lengthens day by day. Oxford hardly dares to count its dead. Even in my own circle of acquaintance how many boys, whom I have known from childhood, who have played with my own children in the garden, the companions of my own student or soldier sons, now lie beneath the sodden fields of Flanders! One draws a veil over the thought, lest the possibilities of the future should become intolerable. And yet, in spite of all our losses, both those already endured and those which are sure to come, the note of lamentation is little heard. Rachel has not yet begun to mourn for her children. I suppose it is the English way—perhaps a good way—to weep little, at least in public. For the time being the need "to carry on" preoccupies our thoughts and suppresses our emotions. I take pride to think that the visitor will find no more quietly resolute spot in England to-day than this old University, spite of its many sorrows.

Needless to say, Oxford, like every other English town, is full of soldiers, fuller, I think, than most of them. Soldiers fill the streets and occupy the colleges. Instead of the crowds of undergraduates issuing from college gateways and thronging the roads on their bicycles, one meets soldiers, soldiers everywhere. Part of a regiment is—or was until yesterday—billeted at Balliol. The old common room, familiar to many Americans, became a recruiting office. A battalion has its headquarters at Exeter. Magdalen and Christ Church and other colleges are peopled with soldiers in various stages of training. Stout boys in khaki thrust their heads from the windows of students' lodging-houses and shout to their companions on the other side, "Are we downhearted?" All day long the streets resound to the marching song of "Tipperary" as the companies go out to drill.

As I sit in the quiet room where the *Hibbert Journal* is edited I am roused twenty times a day by the tramp of passing regiments in the street below—usually singing—and twenty times do I break off from my work; for the sight is one I cannot miss—

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pathetic, terrible, splendid, and stirring to the blood. What fine boys most of them are—recruited from the neighboring villages, from local offices and shops and breweries, and from the colleges, too. Many of them I know personally. There is my college "scout"; there is my gardener; there is my pupil; there is my son. How strong and happy they look! How well they march! What a difference three months' military training has made in their health and their bearing! I return to my work and presently another regiment passes, marching with a different step—the boots less heavy, the tramp less regular and firm. These, I think, must be raw recruits. But, no! This is the corps humorously known in the University as the "Last Ditchers"—a body composed for the most part of professors and dons, some of them well advanced in life. There in the second rank is the Poet Laureate; there is Sir Walter Raleigh; there is Prof. Gilbert Murray; there is Mr. Godley, the University orator, seemingly in command, and many others known to fame. Many are the stories I have heard of them, all good, but some, perhaps, not true; how last week, for example, Mr. Godley put his troops to the "double" for nearly a hundred yards and subsequently had to send all over Oxford for hansom cabs to take the exhausted warriors panting to their homes. Gallant "Last Ditchers," though the War Office will not recognize you as a fighting force, there are no truer hearts in England than those which beat, and have beaten so long, in your breasts!

Passing about the streets, always crowded in the daytime with these unfamiliar types, one frequently finds one's self in the midst of a group using a strange language. They are Belgian refugees talking Flemish. There are many hundreds of refugees in Oxford. If the head of a college asks you to dine at the high table, the chances are that the first person to whom he will introduce you will be a "professor of Louvain—my guest." And the professor of Louvain will tell you many things which set you thinking of what the fate of Oxford would be if the Germans had their will; and perhaps on going home in the moonlight you will see Magdalen tower standing in its beauty and find yourself thanking God, and praying to Him, also. Not for nothing, believe me, are yonder brave boys tramping away to the drill-ground.

But though our beautiful buildings are all outwardly unchanged, there are novel and terrible sights to be seen inside. There are six hundred wounded in Oxford—British, Belgian, and a few Germans. The great room in the examination schools is now a hospital ward. At the very spot where, a few years back, I sat listening to William James when he lectured here, I sat the other day talking to a wounded Cameron Highlander. A shrapnel bullet entering from above had knocked out his left eye and smashed his upper jaw. The difference between my employment on the two occasions may serve to reveal something of the change which has passed over Oxford since the war broke out.

And the playing fields! Well, there is virtually no play in Oxford now. There is sterner work in hand, and athletics are in suspense. The great University Park in normal times is thronged with games and their players—football, cricket, lacrosse, hockey, and, at times, baseball. Many of your readers are familiar with the same. It is an odd experience to stand at some central point and see "balls" of one kind or another, big and little, sailing, soaring, and whizzing through the air with the shouting crowds of players in pursuit of them. But to-day our men are no longer hitting, kicking, throwing, and pursuing balls in the University Park. The place has become a drill-ground where, day by day, some 2,000 men are learning to fight. Last week I was standing on the piece of ground where the American students have their baseball pitch. In front of me a company was practicing attack movements, and at that moment advancing in open order, rifles in hand, towards the spot where I stood. Suddenly the men flung themselves flat on the ground and advanced their rifles. "Give the men a mark, sir," was called out by a sergeant to an officer. "Mark that man over yonder," answered the officer—and he pointed at me. Whereupon two hundred British soldiers levelled their empty rifles at my vulnerable body and let them off with a ferocious click. Doubtless, they "pretended," as the children say, that I was a German.

This is not the place to describe the many changes of thought and opinion which the war is causing here, as elsewhere. Among a hundred that might be named I will mention only one—which may be taken as a sample. During the last few months I have noticed, among some of the most peace-loving of Oxford men, a change of attitude towards the question of universal military service. Aspects of the question which are overlooked in times of peace have become prominent. The duty of fighting and dying for their country is being performed by the best of our young men—not in the University alone, of course, but in the country at large. The "slackers," the stay-at-homes—those who are *not* the best—reap the benefit. Is that fair? Is it right? Why should those who feel the call of duty be sacrificed for the sake of those who feel it not? And if on the one hand it is unjust that the best should be suffered to die for the worst, does not the immunity which the worst enjoy demoralize them still further? I was present not long ago at a meeting where a young man of wind-bag tendencies, who ought to be in the army, made a speech against the war, denouncing it as "got up by capitalists." He was answered by a boy in uniform, who said: "I am proud to fight for old England. But it makes me mad to think I shall be fighting for *you*." This point of view is the counterpart to that of the Balliol undergraduate already mentioned. And it opens up a question which many Oxford men, who have no tendencies to militarism, are now discussing among themselves with a good deal of earnestness.

A Philosopher Among the Wits

PART II:—BERKELEY'S PHILOSOPHY A PART OF LITERATURE—ITS START IN A REACTION AGAINST SCIENTIFIC HYPOTHESIS AND RATIONALISTIC RELIGION—ITS RELATION TO ROMANTICISM.

VI.

Of the right of Berkeley to hold a place in the great society of wits, or, as we should say, of his genius as a writer, some intimation was given in the course of narrating his life. But his influence and position in literature cannot be fully understood without some knowledge of his philosophical system, and at this we must take a superficial glance.

Berkeley's early years were passed in what was preëminently an age of science. Great discoveries had been made by Galileo and Harvey and Newton and many others, and the astonishment over their magnitude was still in the air. In the Royal Society of London and the less formal associations of Paris we see the beginning of organized experimental research in what was then called the New or Natural Philosophy, with results already striking and of dazzling promise. And the sway of these achievements was felt far beyond their own proper field.

Locke, in his sensational philosophy, leaves space, or extension, and time and matter lying outside of the mind as virtually incomprehensible entities, and on these the speculative mathematicians had been, and still were, building up hypothetical superstructures high into the dim inane. Heaven forbid that I should pretend to understand these things or rate their practical value, any more than did the non-mathematical world of that day. But the world was filled with the noise of the battles of such doughty antagonists as Hobbes and Wallis, or Newton and Leibnitz, over their aerial creeds, just as it had listened wonderingly to the clamor of the Schoolmen over their spiritual entities, and it could understand perfectly well what Newton meant when he called science "such an impertinently litigious lady that a man has as good be engaged in lawsuits as have to do with her." And it understood, or thought it understood, what was going on when these high scholars began to connect their hypotheses with the mysteries of religion, when, for instance, Spinoza, with his geometrical notions of space, called God an "extended thing."

And so there came about, particularly in England, a pretty warfare between these makers of hypotheses and the gentlemen of common-sense, the echoes of which are heard all through the literature of the day. It was taken up by the poets, and Butler turned from ridiculing the Puritan pretensions of saintship to jesting over those scientific pretenders who, from the supposed vision of an elephant in their telescope, sought

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

To clear the grand hypothesis
Of th' motion of the earth from this.

Philosophers like Glanvill and Bolingbroke tried to warn thinkers against the slippery ground of hypothetical theorizing in general. Mandeville, from the point of view of a practical and successful physician, wrote a whole book, "Treatise of the Hypochondriack," to show the disastrous work of hypotheses in his own profession, and, by the way, in science generally. As this is a subject not often touched on by historians, though of considerable importance, I shall quote from him at some length:

An Hypothesis when once it is establish'd a little time becomes like a Sovereign, and receives the same homage and respect from its Vassals, as if it was Truth it self: This continues till Experience or Envy discovers a flaw in it. . . . Then you see all that fought under the banners of the old Hypothesis bristle up, and every Man of Note amongst them thinks himself personally injured, and in honour obliged to stand by it with his Life and Fortune. . . . This Play is generally continued for a considerable time with a great deal of violence; and I have observ'd as much hatred and animosity between the *Aristotelians* and *Cartesians*, when I was at *Leiden*, as there is now in *London* between *High* Church and *Low*-Church.

In another notable passage Mandeville explains how it is that astronomers (it would be biologists to-day) can quarrel over their hypotheses, which are matters of pure opinion and can never be controlled by the evidence of our senses, while carrying on in unison the practical and profitable work of experimentation.

Naturally, this contempt for the quarrels over incomprehensible and seemingly inane theories of science joined with the disgust at the very similar theological controversies to produce a reaction against everything that was mysterious or in any way above the more creeping platitudes of common-sense. But here came in a curious twist in the warfare. Most of these men, such as Mandeville and Bolingbroke, who ridiculed the irrational assumptions of science, were themselves fast entangled in the naturalistic tendencies of this same science; and so, in their deeper enmity against the supernaturalism of religion, they laid hold of these very hypotheses which they professed to disdain, and, by presenting them in a language apparently denuded of mystery, set them up in the place of God and Providence. Thus it was that out of such entities as the Cartesian reason and the Spinozistic space there was evolved a kind of rationalistic pantheism which seemed to avoid all the difficulties of revelation. It may have had its roots far in the past, but it owed its color and its immediate strength to the imposing achievements of science. The existence of a Deity was not denied by most of these men, but He was identified with a supposedly known law of nature, and from nature itself was eliminated everything that surpasses the easy comprehension of the mind, as if its ultimate processes were as simple as the rules of addition and subtraction. Especially the notion of real sin and evil, as the insoluble mystery that confronts us wherever we look below the surface of natural events or human passions, was juggled out of the world by a neat argument from the part to the whole, which they learned from the old Stoics, and which is about as convincing, when examined, as if a man with the toothache should swear he felt no pain to-day because he had felt none the whole of last month.

These then were the two illegitimate children of lustful science, Hypothesis and Deism. The host of Israel was as terrified at their appearance as if they had been a pair of twin Goliaths—when there came out against them from Dublin a young man armed with a sling and a smooth pebble.

VII.

We have seen from Berkeley's Commonplace Book how deeply he was aware of the great enmities his philosophy would arouse, and he is perfectly precise in stating the source of this danger. His attack, on the one hand, is against the infinites and infinitesimals and incommensurables of the "hypothetical gentlemen," and their abstract notions of "extension, existence, power, matter, lines," which he compares, to their detriment, with the theses of the schoolmen. On the other hand are the "profane," who believe in an "extended Deity" and hide their rationalism, or plain atheism, under the cover of empty words. His first published works were to be directed mainly, but not at all exclusively, against the former; later, and particularly in the "Alciphron," he laid himself out against the more open foes of religion. But there is no real divergence, and, in truth, the whole substance of his counter philosophy is contained in two brief entries of the Commonplace Book, written, as we have seen, when he was little more than a boy:

We cannot possibly conceive any active power but the Will.

Nothing properly but Persons, *i. e.*, conscious things, do exist. All other things are not so much existence as manners of the existence of persons.

To clear the way for this Principle he first undertook to prove that the so-called primary qualities of material objects, such as figure and extension and motion, have no more proper existence outside of the mind of the percipient than do colors, sounds, heat, cold, and suchlike secondary qualities. In other words, our notion of matter as a substance underlying all our sensations of sight and sound and feeling, and causing those sensations, while itself in its absolute nature escaping perception, is an empty, unmeaning illusion. There is no matter, nor any impersonal force whatsoever; there is nothing in *rerum natura* but these two things: personality, consisting of will and mind together; and ideas, as Berkeley calls the images of perception. The will when active creates ideas for its own mind, when passive receives into its mind the ideas created by some other will. The theory is summed up thus in the "Principles of Human Knowledge":

I find I can excite ideas [that is, images as if of things seen] in my mind at pleasure, and vary and shift the scene as oft as I think fit. It is no more than willing, and straightway this or that idea arises in my fancy; and by the same power it is obliterated and makes way for another. This making and unmaking of ideas doth very properly denominate the mind active. Thus much is certain and grounded on experience; but when we think of unthinking agents or of exciting ideas exclusive of volition, we only amuse ourselves with words.

But, whatever power I may have over my own thoughts, I find the ideas actually perceived by Sense have not a like dependence on my will. When in broad daylight I open my eyes, it is not in my power to choose whether I shall see or no, or to determine what particular objects shall present themselves to my view; and so likewise as to the hearing and other senses; the ideas imprinted on them are not creatures of my will. There is therefore some *other* Will or Spirit that produces them.

So at once Berkeley thought to thrust away those hypothetical mysteries evolved out of matter by the men of science, and to bring back the thoughtless from a vague Deity lost in the law of nature to a very personal God, from whose gracious will flow all those ideas in the minds of men which make up for them the seemingly independent world. In place of the mechanically operating efficient cause which alone the Spinozists admitted, he proclaimed once more the existence of a great final cause, thus leading men to look for the purpose rather than the mere facts of life.

VIII.

Undoubtedly there is profit in such a philosophy as well as beauty; but it involves difficulties, some of which Berkeley foresaw and some of which he did not foresee. If the world is only the ideas emanating from the mind of a personal creator, what of evil? Berkeley shirked that problem by repeating the explanation of the Stoics and Deists, according to which imperfection is necessary in the individual members that are designed to make together a perfect whole. And what of the individual human wills and their power of creating ideas? What is their relation to the supreme Creator? Berkeley wavered here, though inclining to a dogmatic statement of free will. It remained for his successor, Jonathan Edwards, to carry his system to its logical conclusion, and to make God frankly the cause of the human will and its ideas.

These are perhaps contingent difficulties, but there is an objection that goes to the very heart of the philosophy. Every one knows how Dr. Johnson, not Berkeley's friend of America, but the Major Bear of London, sought to destroy idealism and prove the existence of matter by kicking a stone. Well, in one sense that may seem no argument at all. Berkeley was the last man in the world to deny the reality of the objects of sense; he even thought his philoso-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

phy made them more real by removing their cause from the realm of incomprehensible hypothesis. The sensation we have when we kick a stone was a fact, and denoted a cause lying outside of our mind, just as clearly to him as to any man in the street; the only difference was that he called this cause the immediate will of God rather than some intangible, unknowable substratum of "matter." But the deeper objection implied in Johnson's act he did not, and could not, answer. That implication is that we are as immediately and as certainly conscious of some impersonal force in the world as we are of our own personality—whether we call it "matter," or give it some other unmeaning name, is of minor consequence, so long as we do not belie our consciousness by regarding it as a personality. That we do not know this force in the same way that we know ideas, is nothing to the point; neither, as Berkeley admits, do we know of the existence of our own will and mind in that way. At least the whole question resolves itself into the truth or untruth of Berkeley's initial intuition: "Nothing properly but Persons, *i. e.*, conscious things, do exist."

Whether we accept or reject that intuition, Berkeley's system remains one of the great influences not only in metaphysics but in the wider field of thought which we call literature. He was in many respects, notably in the restraint and measure of his language, very much a man of his age and of the neoclassical school that ruled it; but there burned within him, nevertheless, an enthusiasm belonging to a different school altogether, and linking him with that hidden spirit which all through the eighteenth century was preparing for the revolution of the nineteenth. This is shown in the Quixotic fervor with which he threw himself upon the belief (so unchristian and so dear to Rousseau) in the innocence of the natural state of man; and it is shown in other traits of his character. Nor are there lacking in his writings specific traits that point forward to a kind of literature unimagined in his day. So, for instance, his descriptions, though superficially they may seem not to be striking, yet contain hints here and there that might give us pause. There is something more than the traditional force of the simile in his comparison of the visible phenomena of nature with the words of a great book lying open before us, wherein the Author in symbolic language has written out for our perusal the desires and purposes of his soul. There is even one short passage in his "Alciphron," put into the mouth of a wavering Deist, which may be taken as an intimation that romantic sympathy with nature played an important part in Berkeley's revolt from the coldness of rationalism:

> I hold the confused notion of a Deity, or some invisible power, to be of all prejudices the most unconquerable. When half a dozen ingenious men are got together over a glass of wine, by a cheerful fire, in a room well lighted, we banish with ease all the spectres of fancy or education, and are very clear in our decisions. But, as I was taking a solitary walk before it was broad day-light in yonder grove, methought the point was not quite so clear; nor could I readily recollect the force of those arguments, which used to appear so conclusive at other times. I had I know not what awe upon my mind, and seemed haunted by a sort of panic, which I cannot otherwise account for, than by supposing it the effect of prejudice: for you must know, that I, like the rest of the world, was once upon a time catechised and tutored into the belief of a God or Spirit.

To one who can read between the lines such a passage as this ought to convey something more than the rhetorical pantheism common in such deistic and rationalistic writers as Shaftesbury. I suspect that deep down at the root of Berkeley's metaphysics lies the "pathetic fallacy" of feeling one's self into the phenomena of nature, a fallacy, indeed, never far from the heart of man, but in its excess one of the sure marks of romanticism. In some such way as this Berkeley's metaphysical thesis seems to me to reach through the years, and to connect itself with the later literary revolt against rationalistic compression for the unhampered expansion of the emotions and for what we regard else as the forces of personality.

P. E. M.

Poetry

The Voice of Flanders

GUIDO GEZELLE, THE FOREMOST REPRESENTATIVE OF A COMMUNITY OF SINGERS AND THE CREATOR OF AN ARTISTIC LANGUAGE.

By A. J. BARNOUW.

THE HAGUE, January 10.

Mr. Hall Caine, some time ago, admitted the London correspondent of the *Nieuwe Rotterdamsche Courant* to an interview, in the course of which the novelist appeared surprised to hear from his interviewer that Dutch and Flemish were practically the same language, distinguishable only by dialectal differences. It was a regrettable omission on the part of the Dutch journalist that, at the same time, he did not enlighten the great man as to the existence of such a thing as a Flemish literature. If he had, "King Albert's Book" would have been a homage, indeed, to the King of the Belgians, whereas now it is a homage only to Albert, King of the Walloons. For the book contains contributions from French-writing Belgians, but from Flemish authors not one. Their very existence is ignored. Even Edmund Gosse, writing on Belgian literature, speaks of those writers only that have expressed themselves in French. And he might have done better, as he knows Dutch. I remember reading a translation that he made—and an excellent one it was—of a sonnet by Hooft, and a foreigner who understands the far from easy diction of that seventeenth-century poet need fear no difficulty in reading modern Flemish literature. It deserves to be read, and never more than in these days. For in it live the strength, the love of the native soil, the patient submission to suffering, the silent heroism, that of old have been the virtues of this people, supporting it in its resistance against Spain, as now against the armies of the German conqueror. Indeed, they find expression also in the poetry of Emile Verhaeren, to whom the *Nation*, some weeks ago, paid due tribute. But the very Flemishness of that poet's art makes one wonder why he preferred the French to his native language. By the use of his native tongue he would, I believe, have brought his mood and his mode into even closer harmony. However, Verhaeren's choice has proved no loss to his own Flanders, as it has convinced the reading world that in the Flemish people the poetry of nature is not dead. Not only Verhaeren is there to prove it. The best among the French poets of Belgium were Flemings by birth; Maurice Maeterlinck, George Eekhoud, Georges Rodenbach, Charles van Lerberghe, Max Elskamp—names that have little of the French in them.

The Flemish soul throbs with poetry and song. This is a land of singers. And the most musical of all Flemish poets, who did not want the mellow sounds of French to reproduce the soul-music in him, was Guido Gezelle. He died in 1899, hardly known beyond the borders of his native country. But to his countrymen he was the singing voice of the land. In the year preceding that of his death, the Dutch poet Albert Verwey found a copy of his "Rijmsnoer om en om het Jaar" in an unassuming Roman Catholic bookshop, hidden among theological writings and a great many copies of the encyclic *De Conditione Opificum*, the only poet that was suffered among so dull and learned a company.

The charm of Gezelle's poetry is not in its thought. He was a thinker, but not original enough to create great poetry out of his meditations. But original he was to a degree as a visionary and an interpreter of nature's music. His poetry is a magic mass of sound and color, welded into word. All the innumerable sounds of nature, from the soft rustling of the reed on the water's edge to the mighty roar of thunder, are reëchoed in his verse; all the variegated hues of his Flemish country, the blues of its summer skies, the grays of its November days, are described with an inexhaustible splendor of words, which has often been imitated but seldom surpassed.

The love of words was a passion with him. He collected them as an eighteenth-century virtuoso collected rare cameos. He gathered them out of old books, forgotten gems of speech which he set again in the bright surface of his verse, out of the rough speech of the day-laborer by the roadside, no matter where he found them, as long as he thought them beautiful. "Old words are of more value than old jewels," he used to say. And thus he created an artistic language, thoroughly Flemish, from

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the speech of several periods and country dialects.

Some of his early poetry was written at the Roman Catholic Seminary at Roesselare, where, until 1860, he was the admired teacher of a group of young enthusiasts in whom he stirred the genius for poetry which lies dormant in many Flemish souls. In himself it was of slow growth: not until he had passed his sixtieth year did the heyday of his powers arrive. "Tijdkrans" (1893) and "Rijmsnoer om en om het Jaar" (1897) are the two volumes that have placed him among the ranks of the great poets. A masterly rendering of Longfellow's "Hiawatha" also shows the best characteristics of his uncommon talent. Nevertheless, in those happy days at Roesselare, when his powers received a stimulus from the admiring devotion of his students, he wrote some of his best-remembered compositions, among others the classical song, "O 't ruischen van het ranke riet" (1860).

Roesselare! What different association that name—Roulers it is called in French—calls up in this day of ours! Situated halfway between Dixmuiden and Kortrijk (Courtray), it lies in the very centre of the fierce struggle between the Germans and the Allies. What will be left of the Seminary and the church and the simple cottages of the people where the poet, who knew every one of them, had many a chat? His poetry was of peace among men, of man's toil on the land, of his rest by the fireside, of his life and death in the love of his neighbor and his God. But if he had lived to see this day, his song would have become a song of war, war for his country's freedom, for his people's right to live their own Flemish life. He also would have found the words to console and strengthen them in their day of desolation.

The Fleming that will seek for such a word of comfort in "King Albert's Book" will look in vain. To Mr. Hall Caine, Belgium, the land of Artevelde, of Rubens and Van Dyck, of Guido Gezelle, is a country of Frenchmen. I wish I might quote some of Gezelle's inimitable poety to prove his error. But the Flemish would be lost on most of my readers. Let me, therefore, conclude with this feeble substitute for one of his musical songs, which in the original suggests the whispering of the wind among the rushes of which it sings:

O rustling of the rushes' throng,
O that I knew thy sad, sad song.
When as the wind comes sweeping by
And bends thy rushes tenderly,
I see thee bow with humble grace,
And rise, and bow again thy face,
And hear that sad, my sweetest, song
Go rustling through the rushes' throng.

O rustling of the rushes' throng,
How often have I strayed along
Thy wat'ry brim and, lone and still,
Sat by the water's quiet rill,
And gazed upon the dimpling glass,
And watched the rippling billows pass,
And listened to that dear, sweet song
You sang to me, O rustling throng.

O rustling of the rushes' throng,
How many a man that hears thy song
And, passing, sees thy waving reed,
Goes coldly by and takes no heed,
Goes on to where him passion drives,
Or wealth him lures in golden gyves,
But does not understand thy song,
O my dear rushes' rustling throng.

But, gentle reed, he does thee wrong
That thus despises thy sweet song.
God made the stream, God made thy stem,
God made the wind blow over them.
He blew, and danced in playful whim
Around thy stem that bowed to him.
God listened, and He heard no wrong,
O rustling reed, in thy sad song.

No, gentle reed, my soul does long
For thy sad, undespisëd song,
For that same God who gave thee voice
Gave me the feeling to rejoice
In thy sweet murmur's melodies
That wander with the waving breeze;
No, gentle reed, I did thee wrong
If e'er my soul despised thy song.

The chant from out thy rustling throng
Reëcho in my own sad song,
And sadly rise unto Thy throne
Who made us both to live Thine own.
O Thou who even canst rejoice
In a poor rush's feeble voice,
Do not reject the sad complaint
Of me, a feeble reed and faint.

Book Notes and Byways

THE EARLY HISTORY OF GEORGIA.

The two outstanding figures in the early colonizations of Georgia are James Edward Oglethorpe (1696-1785) and Sir John Percival (1683-1748), afterwards the first Earl of Egmont. The former, as Percival says, gave "the first hint of the project," and afterwards became the chief organizer within the colony. The latter was the first president of the Georgian Trustees, and the foremost patron of the colony in England. Both Oglethorpe and Percival had served on a select committee of the House of Commons in 1729 to inquire into the state of English jails, and it was the knowledge of pauperism and of the necessity of seeking for it an economic remedy, thereby gained, which led them into the great work of their lives in the first settlement of Georgia.

From the private "Journal of Percival," belonging to the present Earl of Egmont, and here drawn upon for the first time to fill the missing period in the "Transactions of the Trustees of Georgia" concerning the infancy of this colony, it is learned that the West Indies, rather than Georgia, are first mentioned as the most suitable locality for the founding of the proposed colony for poor debtors released from English prisons. This idea no doubt owed its inception in some measure to Berkeley's celebrated scheme of founding a college in Bermuda. In this connection Percival writes in his "Journal" on April 1, 1730: "I called on Mr. Oglethorpe, who kept me three hours and more in explaining his project of sending a colony of poor and industrious debtors to the West Indies by means of a charitable legacy left by one King, a haberdasher, to be disposed of as his executors should please. Those executors have agreed that £5,000 of the money shall be employed to such a purpose, and our business is to get a patent or charter for incorporating a number of honest and respectable persons to pursue the good work." Carolina, however, by which is meant that portion of it subsequently called Georgia, is first recorded as the chosen locality for the colony on July 1, 1730, when Percival writes that he "went to town to a meeting of the new society for fulfilling Dalone's will to the conversion of negroes, and dispose in settling some hundreds of families in Carolina, who came necessitous out of gaols by virtue of our late debtor act." But gradually a separate organization emerged from this "new society" for the management of the Carolina settlement. And in addition the proposed colony received definite bounds by the grant of a large tract of land between the two rivers of Savannah and Altamaha.

The charter for a Georgia corporation, Percival writes, was, on April 21, 1732, "at length signed our own way, the King receding from his objections." The corporation was named "The trustees for establishing the colony of Georgia in America." Lord Viscount Percival was appointed its first president. Within the larger body of trustees was a smaller group, which had charge of administrative details, called the common council, of which the Hon. Vernon Digby was the first chairman. All the trustees served voluntarily and had no private interest whatsoever in the project. This purely philanthropic character of the enterprise makes it unique among the early companies for colonization.

At a meeting held by the Georgia trustees on August 10, 1732, a committee was appointed, consisting of Percival, Oglethorpe, Heathcote, and Hales, to prepare laws for the Government of the colony. They reported on November 1, 1732, and the society thereupon resolved that "a civil government should be established in Georgia and the town to be erected be named Savannah, and the lands thereto belonging to be 5,000 acres. The Government to be by bailiffs, constables, and tithing men. A court to be erected of oyer and terminer, with a judge, jury, justices of the peace," etc. All who went were to sign a contract engrossed on parchment agreeing to submit to the laws that should be made, to stay three years in the country, and mutually to assist one another for the first year in clearing the lands and building the settlements. In addition to these early laws three important acts were drawn up by the trustees and passed by the King in council in 1735 for the better government of Georgia. The first act forbade the importation, ownership, and use of negroes as slaves within the limits of the province. The second act prohibited the introduction of rum. By the third act trading with the Indians was forbidden unless sanctioned by a special license. Still later on July 6, 1737, Percival writes: "Oglethorpe, Holland, and I agreed on three new acts for the government of Georgia; 1, to prevent luxury; 2, to allow Indian's evidence; 3, to prevent gaming and running in debt." From such acts it is likewise evident how very different the basal laws of Georgia were from those of any other Southern colony, and how greatly this difference was due to the philanthropic character of the Georgian trustees.

The first embarkation of assisted emigrants to Georgia sailed from Gravesend on November 17, 1732, in the Anne, a galley of some 200 tons burthen, commanded by Captain Thomas. There were on board about one hundred and twenty persons, of whom one

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

hundred were assisted colonists who had been carefully chosen. Oglethorpe accompanied the expedition at his own expense. These emigrants arrived on January 13, 1733, at Charleston, where the King had ordered Governor Johnson "to be assistant" to them, and on February 1 they reached Savannah.

The second embarkation of assisted colonists set out on June 15, 1733. In addition to those who were assisted, a number of persons from Bristol went on their own account and took with them their servants. Various reputable persons, it is recorded, also agreed to go over on their own charge to follow the manufacturing of silk. Certain potash makers likewise received grants of lands. "Some poor persons were minuted down (June 20, 1733) against a future embarkation, and others were rejected who were able to get there bread here."

Although the colonization of Georgia was thus at first undertaken in the interests of released English debtors, the scope of the enterprise was soon broadened to include the persecuted Protestants of the Continent. The most important group of such refugees were the Saltzburgers. The first embarkation of these set out from Dover under Philip von Reck on January 8, 1734, in the ship Purisburg, and arrived on March 10 in Savannah. In April they were settled in their chosen home, which they called Ebenezer. A second expedition was likewise conducted by Baron von Reck in October, 1734, and again a third in September, 1735. In 1736 the Saltzburgers at Ebenezer, "having modestly insinuated that their land was bad," were removed by Oglethorpe to the mouth of the Savannah, opposite Purysburg.

The Moravians were another Protestant sect desirous of escaping poverty and religious persecution suffered in Europe. The Earl of Egmont—previously Viscount Percival—writes, on January 7, 1735, that Protestants of Lusatia, or Moravians, the subjects of Count Zinzendorf, to avoid persecution of Papists, desired a grant of five hundred acres in Georgia. Here, according to Charles Wesley, they proved the most laborious, cheapest workers, and best of subjects. In 1738, however, they removed with their minister, the Rev. Gottlieb Spangenburg, to Pennsylvania, where they formed the communities of Bethlehem and Nazareth.

Several other important racial elements were included in this early Georgian colonization. Egmont says, on October 31, 1733, at the board "a letter was read desiring several hundred Piedmontese, who understand the making of silk and planting vines, might be transported to Georgia, being now at Rotterdam and in distress." An application of Vaudois, who also knew the silk trade and vine dressing, was rejected, as they insisted on the lands descending in fee simple on the female heirs. This question of tenure later became a subject of frequent discussion by the trustees. But it was the Scotch element that proved to be one of the very best in Georgia. One hundred and sixty-six Scots composed the first expedition on the Prince of Wales, Capt. Dunbar commanding, which sailed on November 7, 1735. Their minister was the Rev. John MacLeod. This was the vanguard of a considerable Scotch migration to the district on the Altamaha River, known as Darien. This brave people had deliberately chosen the southern region, as thereby they would form a bulwark against any encroachments upon the infant colony.

Among the early settlements made by the Georgian trustees in their new colony the most important by far was Savannah. It was situated about ten miles from the sea, on the Savannah River, and here the tents of the first settlers were erected on January 1, 1733. The town steadily increased in size, so that at the close of 1736 it is reported to have had 200 houses and between 600 and 700 inhabitants. Next to Savannah the principal early settlement was Frederica, on St. Simon's Island, in the Altamaha River, which the first expedition reached on March 8, 1736. So long as Oglethorpe's regiment was stationed in the place to protect southern Georgia from Spanish encroachments, Frederica flourished, but when the regiment was withdrawn its decadence began, and ultimately it became one of "the dead towns of Georgia." The German Protestants of the colony settled chiefly at Ebenezer and Bethany, the Swiss at Purysburg. The Scotch occupied not only Frederica, but also Fort Argyll. A considerable number of smaller settlements are also mentioned by Egmont.

Owing to the illustrious names connected with the religious life of Georgia, much interest attaches to this phase of its early history. In the first embarkation of 1732 Oglethorpe was accompanied by the Rev. Henry Herbert, a clergyman of the Church of England, as chaplain. He died of fever in the following year, and was succeeded in the church at Savannah by the Rev. Samuel Quincy. This clergyman evidently belonged to the famous Massachusetts family of that name, as Egmont writes that "at a meeting of the Georgian trustees (April 25, 1734), a letter was read from our minister at Georgia that he was on his return from New England, where he had been to see his friends. Among other things, he tells us that the English of that country do not deserve the general character put on them of being religious hypocrites. That the town of Boston increases, there being now 20,000 inhabitants, 600 horse, and 700 or 800 foot, fit to defend themselves on occasion." As the wife of Quincy did not desire "to go over," this clergyman asked at the close of 1735 to be dismissed, "which was a great pleasure to the board to learn." Upon his return to England, he petitioned the board for a grant of land for his services. Such request, however, was refused, "as his going to New England for six months, leaving a wheelwright to read public prayers, and bury the dead, was behavior the trustees could not excuse."

The two brothers, Charles and John Wesley, the celebrated founders of Methodism, succeeded the Rev. Mr. Quincy in Georgia. Egmont says of a meeting of the Georgia board on September 17, 1735: "Mr. Burton informed us that two gentlemen, one a clergyman, bred at the university, and who have some substance, have resolved to go to Georgia out of a pious design to convert the Indians; they are brothers, and their names Wesley. That a young gentleman (Rev. Benjamin Ingham) of university studies resolves also to go with them and settle in Georgia." The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts voted to pay the £50 per annum which Mr. Quincy had received to John Wesley, "who succeeds in the Church at Savannah." The two Wesleys, accompanied by the Rev. Mr. Ingham, sailed in the second embarkation under Oglethorpe, and, after a rough passage, arrived in the Tybee Roads, at the mouth of the Savannah River, February 5, 1736.

Charles Wesley, after a short sojourn in Savannah, accompanied Oglethorpe as Indian secretary to Frederica. He remained there only until May, 1736, when he was sent to Savannah to issue licenses to Indian traders. In June he resigned his commission, and returned to England, arriving at Deal on December 3, 1736. The report which he made to the trustees on his return concerning Georgia forms one of the most valuable parts of Egmont's journal. He retained office under the board, with the evident intention of returning to Georgia, until April, 1738, when he resigned.

From John Wesley, writes Egmont on January 22, 1737, a letter was received, "acknowledging the receipt of my collection of tracts concerning Carolina, and acquainting me that the people of Savannah are too numerous for his care." Again, he writes in June, 1737: "A letter from Mr. John Wesley, minister of Savannah, was read, giving account of disbursements and expostulating with us for suspecting him guilty of embezzling money trusted to him, and desired to know the name of his accusers. All present were surprised, and Mr. Martin was instructed to write that nobody had accused him of anything amiss." At the meeting of the Georgian trustees held on December 7, 1737, a long letter of complaint, with the copy of two presentments by the grand jury of Savannah, was read, wherein one Williamson, of Savannah, made various charges against John Wesley. In the two presentments it was charged "that he refused to bury the dead because the deceased was not of his opinion; refused also to christen a child without dipping, unless the parents would declare the child could not bear dipping without danger of his life. That he divided the prayers, and read but half, and that at seven o'clock, and not at eleven. That he refused the sacrament to Mrs. Williamson, without giving a reason, and refused it to others who were not of his opinion, etc."

The attitude of the Georgia trustees upon these charges against Wesley is made known for the first time by the pages of this "Journal." "Dr. Bundy, a clerical trustee," writes Egmont, "showed us out of the liturgy that Mr. Wesley's refusal to christen the child without dipping, or to bury a person not of the Church of England, unless satisfied that the person had been baptized, was no more than by law he was obliged to, and had he complied he would have by law lost his preferment. That this might have been the case, but the Gr. Jury ignorant of it. That by the same liturgy and law of the land any person intending to communicate must send his name the day before to the minister, who, if he knows any objection to the persons taking the sacrament, is to admonish him of his fault, and the person must publicly declare their repentance of the same. That by the letters and papers read it appeared Mr. Wesley had reason to take some things ill, but it would be justice to hear what he can say for himself before we resolve anything concerning him. Accordingly, we all agreed that the substance of the things charged against him should be drawn out and sent to him for his answers. It appears to me that he was in love with Mrs. Williamson before she married, and has acted indiscretely with respect to her, and perhaps with respect to others, which is a great misfortune to us, for nothing is more difficult

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

than to find a minister to go to Georgia, who has any virtue and reputation."

Inasmuch as the usefulness of Wesley had been greatly impaired as the outcome of this seeming love affair, he decided, on the advice of his friends, to abandon further work in Georgia. He left Savannah on December 22, 1737, and went to Charlestown. From this place he sailed on December 22, 1737, and arrived at Deal in England, on February 1, 1738. A concluding notice about him is recorded by Egmont on April 26, 1738, as follows: "Mr. John Wesley, our minister at Savannah, left with us his license for performing ecclesiastical service at Savannah, which we took for a resignation and therefore resolved to revoke his commission. In truth, the board did it with great pleasure, he appearing to us to be a very odd mixture of a man, an enthusiast and at the same time a hypocrite, wholly distasteful to the greater part of the inhabitants, and an incendiary of the people against the magistrates." Too much importance must not be given to this language, as Egmont on other occasions very similarly speeded the parting minister.

Another celebrated clergyman in the early history of Georgia who figures in Egmont's "Journal" is George Whitefield. He is first mentioned as a guest at the anniversary meeting of the Georgia trustees held in March, 1737, when it is said he "goes as our minister to Frederica." In June of that year the board voted that a gift which had recently been received be applied to fitting out Mr. Whitefield and a schoolmaster who offered to go with him. Concerning the trustees' meeting of December 21, 1737, it is recorded: "Mr. Whitefield, our minister, designed for Frederica attended and by word of mouth confirmed his desire to go speedily to Georgia, and therefore he might not wait to pass over with Mr. Oglethorpe, but to go next Saturday with the three ships that carry Colonel Cochrane and some other officers of Colonel Oglethorpe's regiment to Georgia in order to take the soldiers there. He also desired a youth recommended by him might have subsistence and passage over to be schoolmaster in the orphan-house intended to be erected at Frederica." In a letter dated from Gibraltar on February 20, 1738, to the trustees Whitefield offers to settle in whatever part of Georgia they please, since he has heard that Mr. John Wesley has returned to England. Thereupon the board orders, on May 10, "that he may have liberty to exercise his ecclesiastical function of deacon at Savannah as well as at Frederica until a minister for Savannah be sent over." Upon his arrival in Savannah on May 6, 1738, the people importuned him to remain among them. The suggestion which the Rev. Charles Wesley had first made of founding an orphanage in Georgia so appealed to him that he soon resolved to return to England to seek the necessary funds. "This resolution," says Egmont, "of returning so soon to England shows him of a roving temper." On September 6, 1738, he sailed for London and immediately upon arrival began to collect funds for his orphan-house. He succeeded by his persuasive oratory in quickly raising £900 and thereupon the Georgian trustees appointed him their minister to Savannah with a grant on May 30, 1739, of five hundred acres of land for the proposed institution. He returned to Savannah in 1740 by way of Philadelphia, where he met Benjamin Franklin. The orphan house at Bethesda in Georgia thereafter became a chief concern, and he conceived the idea of ultimately converting it into "a seminary of literature and academical learning." Although he made a bequest in his will for this purpose, the plan was frustrated by successive fires. Singularly enough, Whitefield, in spite of this philanthropic spirit, used his influence with the Georgian trustees to have them repeal the law against the employment of slave labor in Georgia.

BENJAMIN RAND.

Correspondence

A NEIGHBOR'S VIEW OF THE WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am just in receipt of a most interesting letter from a friend, a young diplomat of one of the (all too few) neutral European countries, who was here for several years, most of the time as Chargé-d'Affaires of his embassy, a man with a very wide acquaintance in the warring countries, and, besides, one who is a soldier himself and a profound student of military as well as of international affairs. The letter was written after visits to London, Paris, and Berlin, and opportunities for close observation as a guest of the several headquarters in the field.

Here are a few extracts that may give you a new point of view:

". . . The glamour of the war, the enthusiasm for fatherland, and all that seem to be wearing off; the enthusiasm in all the countries is only spasmodic, and sounds to one half-hearted, smacking much of the paid claque in some of our theatres. And small wonder. People in the cities try to go through the regular motions of their business routine, but it is all very perfunctory; there is no profit; there is uncertainty, heavy taxation, loved ones away, hundreds of thousands never to return. Do you wonder there is an undercurrent of murmuring where two months ago there were flags and cheering to the troops marching out, who were to come back victorious within a few weeks? It is realized now that it cannot be a war of a few weeks, and the longer it is felt it will continue the less hopeful are the people at home, and the longer faces do they draw at the repeated visits of the tax-collector. Then, too, everywhere is there grave discontent with the censored news reports. The people feel their confidence is being abused, and I really believe it has been carried to excess. The facts will leak out some time. Get the people who pay the piper discontented, feeling as if they had been played, duped, by the authorities, and you have a state of things that does not beget confidence, generous support, and whole-hearted aid. The English especially chafe under the new régime of censored news from the front.

"In Germany the Socialist element surprised the whole world with the alacrity with which it stowed away its rancor and opposition to things as they were and gave its stanch support to the colors. But that generous impulse has reached its climax, and the reaction has set in. If German arms had proven invincible, continued as invincible as they started out, all would have been well, but there are dark clouds ahead. People talk even above a whisper, and blame this one and that one for misleading them, for plunging the country into an *unnecessary* war. Even in high quarters, in both camps, one does not hear the boasting, the certainty, that was expressed so freely the last time I was in the field, last September.

"The truth of the matter is that Germany *has played* its best cards. It was in a tight place; it held a good hand; it knew the game had to be played some time, and it showed wonderful 'bravour' and shrewdness when it forced the play to begin before its opponents had even actually sorted out their hands, and, too, it played with a verve and acumen that was admirable; but those opponents are producing unexpected aces, and seem to be in such perfect tune, so little friction between them, and all so bent upon its elimination, that Germany is actually playing in desperation—but with masterly skill withal.

"But that does not mean Germany or England or France will be destroyed. I hear so much so glibly expressed, and by laymen who ought to know better, about the extinction of this or that Power. I look for no extinctions, though it seems to me that many, that *all*, their lights will be mightily dimmed, and for many a day. This ought to be your harvest time in getting a firmer hold upon the commerce of the world, and fools will you be, indeed, if you allow this or that influence to tie you up with either party or to be drawn into the undignified scrimmage and lose the wonderful business chance now thrown at you. What I fear most is that you will be pulled into this unholy mess through some diplomatic misstep in Turkey or through some blundering legislation in California.

"Keep your heads, and not only will you line your pockets commercially, but, perhaps even before you expect it, you can play a more important rôle in world-politics than you ever did, and do a far greater service to humanity than you did even in the Russo-Japanese peace arrangements.

"We read and hear a lot of very scientific data just as to how long this or that Power can last. It's all very well to speculate, and those are speculations, but I feel certain that at least Germany will surprise the world with the resources she can draw upon to continue the fight. I said she had played her best cards, but that does not mean she is whipped. She may be forced back on both sides to her own territory. All the while she has been fighting in the enemies' countries was just that much time gained, a masterly strategic stroke. Only then need she begin the defensive, and that she can keep up a long, long time. Russia will not, I think, penetrate very far. Her tactics are defensive, though she may surprise us, but I firmly believe her objective will be southern seaports, regardless of German territory. She may even get those ports through 'diplomacy' that will leave her allies (spite of treaties and ententes that are easily brushed aside) rather cruelly in the lurch and anxious for new connections.

"I look for a long, tiresome, and cruel war. The troops at the front have, as have the citizens at home, gotten over the first enthusiastic fever, and are now grimly settled down to routine fighting—chiefly of cold and of sickness. That, like garrison life, soon palls upon them. Naturally, I do not expect revolt, mutiny, nor anything of that

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

sort, but modern men are not like the ancient warriors, who just fought for fighting's sake. A few months more and in all the troops you'll find obedience and all those essentials excepting *spirit,* the one vital thing you can neither force nor create. Even today among the line officers, if you ask what it is all about, there is a certain surprise, wonderment, and finally a most incoherent, childish explanation, and seldom two explanations alike. Well, those men think; they realize that they, the real force possessing tremendous potentialities, are being used as pawns, mowed down, and for no very satisfying reasons, and certainly not very much to their personal advantage. All this has its effect. And the masses of troops are so vast, the line so long, modern equipment so complete, and quick changes so possible, that, while advantages may be gained, first one side and then another, the possibility of sweeping victories, decisive battles, such as Napoleon waged and you had in your Civil War, are utterly impossible.

"It seems to me it will be a long-drawn-out and most indecisive affair. Both sides will keep at it until tired out. The Germans and the English are much as your Boston bull pups—they'll hang on though there is no more fight in them, just bitten together, both bloody, and *sans* much of their hide, and exhausted, but still hanging by their teeth. Talk of grand victories or of this or that one utterly *crushing* the other. Pshaw! I cannot see it that way. To me it looks like but one thing—a stale-mate, as in chess. Nothing gained; disgraceful, indecent losses everywhere. What a splendid function will be yours, to call it a draw and to suggest terms that both are anxious for, but are too proud to ask! Oh, America, yours is indeed a great rôle, a wonderful part in this supreme drama of the world, and I firmly believe you are of the right fibre and noble enough to play it well, and to give the world peace, real peace, the much-desired peace that now almost passeth our understanding! . . ."

And so may it be, is my most earnest prayer. F. W. FITZPATRICK.

Washington, D. C., December 26, 1914.

THE GERMAN VIEW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just been reading with care and with intense interest the discussions about the war, in the *Preussische Jahrbücher* (August to November inclusive—at the time of writing this letter the December number has not come to hand). It is interesting to note how little use is made in the pages of that journal of certain defences of Germany's action which have been given a very prominent place in the arguments prepared by German apologists for the American public. Thus, in regard to the critical question of the violation of Belgian neutrality, I find in the numbers of the *Jahrbücher* above named no use of the argument that that neutrality was fictitious. In the one passage where the question is carefully discussed (September, pp. 559, 560), Professor Delbrück rests his case solely on the plea of strategical necessity. The Franco-German boundary was too short for the satisfactory deployment of a gigantic modern army. The Germans would have been checked by the French fortifications till the Russian masses were mobilized and pouring over Germany's eastern frontier. Even so, it might have been wise for Germany to accept all these disadvantages if maintenance of Belgian neutrality would have kept England neutral and secured for Germany what Professor Delbrück considers the necessary consequence of English neutrality, namely, the active participation of Italy on the German side. But England, he contends, would have fought in any case, as the Belgian question was the pretext for intervention, not the real reason. So, though violation of Belgian neutrality brought many disadvantages to Germany, the advantage it brought was much greater.

Incidentally, it may be worth while to observe that Professor Delbrück, in naming the questions it was necessary for General Joffre to decide, includes among them, with no word to indicate that there was anything unusual about the problem, "whether they would violate Swiss neutrality in the same way the Germans were violating that of Belgium" (September, pp. 560, 561).

Again, as to the arguments used by the opponents of Germany, that the Austrian ultimatum and the circumstances attending it indicated that Austria did not wish a peaceful settlement with Servia, but was bent on forcing war, that such a war, whether territory was actually annexed or not, was likely seriously to impair Servian independence, and that this would mean a great political reverse for Russia, with danger of a general European war—on all these subjects the pages of the *Preussische Jahrbücher* are equally frank and explicit. The Servian menace to Austria had become so intolerable, according to the argument there presented, that when the Archduke's assassination occurred, the Austrian Government must make an end of the Servian propaganda once for all. But adequate security for this could not consist in mere promises. Therefore Austria framed demands the tenor of which involved a subjection of Servia to the permanent control of Austria (August, p. 376). A hesitating procedure on Austria's part would only have encouraged Servian resistance and Russian inclination to play a bluffing game, which itself could most readily lead to war. Therefore, it was wise for Count Berchtold to fashion his note as sharply as possible ("so scharf wie möglich"), thereby putting up directly to the Czar the question of peace or war (August, pp. 376, 377). No compromise with Servia was possible, for it would not give Austria adequate security against the Servian propaganda. Therefore the only possible solution was that Austria should take Servia into sequestration indefinitely ("auf weiteres"), though this need not necessarily take the form of a transition step to annexation (August, p. 379), This would put an end to the prestige of Russia as the protector of the Slavic peoples on the Balkan peninsula, and would constitute for her a great political defeat (September, p. 555). To those who have been following the course of the argument in this country, it is needless to say how much is here admitted which others have denied.

What has just been stated also answers the question why Sir Edward Grey's proposal for a conference of four Powers at London to consider the Austrian dispute would not be acceptable. But on this question, an article by Dr. Daniels in the November number of the *Jahrbücher* offers some interesting comment. The delay the conference would cause, he says, would be too great, for the trial of the assassins was not yet completed, and the conference would have delayed its decision till the proceedings of the trial and all the other material for the decision were at hand. But this could not be allowed, because in the meantime the dynastic and imperial emotions that had been aroused to such a fiery pitch among Austria's subjects would have cooled. (November, pp. 364-5.) To the average American it would not seem altogether an argument against the conference that it would not decide the question before the evidence was in, and that action would be delayed till the passions of the people were cooled.

Interesting also is the statement of Germany's plans in case of the victory which Delbrück, writing in the November number (p. 370), expects Germany to gain.

There must be security that Germany will never be subject to a like attack again. But history shows that the way to attain this security is not by subjugation of other countries and the establishment of a world empire. Nor is it by seizure of portions of the territory of conquered countries and occupation of strongholds. Napoleon tried this and failed. The only security the Germans should desire, therefore, must be gained by combining the highest possible development of their own military forces with a policy of such moderation that it will disarm the distrust which the military strength awakens. (Delbrück, October, 191.) The desired end is, therefore, a balance of power, but a thoroughgoing one, not only a balance of power on land, as England wishes it, but by sea also, and this makes the destruction of England's command of the sea the great goal of Germany in the war. This freedom of the seas for which Germany is fighting is so great a gain for the progress of civilization that the cause of Germany thereby receives moral worth, and is identified with the interests of humanity. (Delbrück, September, pp. 558-9; Dr. Schmidt, October, pp. 1 and 15.) It will be observed that the American hope of peace by world federation has no place here. Also when Professor Delbrück develops more in detail exactly what Germany will do, and what will happen in the world, when France is prostrate at her feet, and the English empire has fallen to pieces (November, pp. 370-376), it is hard for a neutral reader to see in the condition portrayed much that resembles a balance of power in Europe.

What has been said will indicate at least some of the reasons why neutral nations are not able to accept the German point of view in all respects. If to such fragmentary comments as the foregoing be added the recognition of the strength of the case against Germany as presented, for instance, in such a book as Muir's "Britain's Case Against Germany," is it not possible for German thinkers to see that one may differ with them, and still not be either dishonest or hypocritical, and that the German formula for the explanation of the war, "Muscovite greed, and French desire for revenge, and the mean-spirited commercial jealousy of England," falls somewhat short of exhausting the case?

I should like, after having called attention to many things in the discussions of the *Preussische Jahrbücher* which will be repellent to Americans, to summarize briefly and rather freely what seem to me the strong points of the German case as presented in the pages of that magazine. I am not arguing the question whether Germany is right or not, but am dealing primarily with the psychological problem which puzzles many British and not a few

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Americans, namely, how thoughtful and temperate men, Harnack and others like him, can regard Germany's cause as wholly and decisively the cause of right in self-defence against unjust aggression.

The starting point must be not Belgium, but Servia and Austria. Radical differences in thought between men are perhaps not so much due to differences of opinion as to what are the facts, as to the varying emphasis which different persons place upon the different facts. To Englishmen and Americans, France and Belgium are relatively near. For the English people as a whole, and still more for Americans, Russia is so far off that any possible danger from her is less regarded, and the situation in Servia and Austria is outside of our sphere of interest. But just there to a large extent is the strength of the German case. Dr. Daniels (November, p. 365) calls the English book "Why We Are at War," by members of the Oxford Faculty of Modern History, a partisan pamphlet, a *tendenz schrift,* giving as adequate proof that in all its 206 pages it never but once mentions Servia's efforts to tear certain provinces loose from Austria, and that only in the appendix and in the untranslated German.

If one to whom Austrian and German interests are near sincerely believed that Russia was intriguing through Servia in a way that menaced the very existence of Austria, that the disintegration of Austria left Germany with all her civilization inadequately protected against the far lower culture of Russia, and that paper promises from Servia would be of no avail, one might well feel that a course of action that forced war on Servia in order effectively to put an end in the only possible way to a dangerous Russo-Servian propaganda was thoroughly justified. There is evidence enough as to the situation in the Balkans to make us understand at least how serious-minded, thoughtful Germans and Austrians could believe that the propositions just named were true. (See the testimony of Lutz Korodi in the August number of the *Jahrbücher,* after recent travel through southeastern Europe, pp. 370-372.) Then, in the effort to free itself from a danger that menaces its very life, Austria finds England, with her advanced civilization, supporting the backward civilization of Russia, and thus indirectly strengthening the dangerous intrigues that culminated in assassination. Whether this is a true statement of the situation, I do not seek to say, but I do contend that sincere and fair-minded men might believe it to be the truth. Even after England had chosen sides in this way, it might have averted war, had it used its influence strongly with Petrograd to put an end to the state of latent warfare between Austria and Servia (Dr. Daniels, November, pp. 367-368). Even after the Austrian action against Servia, had England clearly announced that it would not enter the war to support Russia when she backed Servia after the latter's murderous intrigue (I am presenting rather freely here Delbrück's argument in the *Jahrbücher,* September, pp. 555-559), war could have been averted. Honor demanded that England should stand with racially allied Germany, and give her assistance to German standards of culture, rather than to Russian. This would have meant that England would break with Russia, and come into closer affiliation with Germany, but the interests of European culture would so have been truly served. But England feared Germany would subdue France and destroy her standing as a great Power (an unreasonable fear), and so the balance of power in Europe would be at an end. Also, if England withdrew from Russia and approached Germany, England must recognize Germany's power on the sea. So England chose the evil side, and in what she conceived to be the interests of her own Imperial power, she took the course that hazarded all the higher interests of civilization. Because Russia and France felt they could count on English aid, the great war broke loose. That Germany struck the first blows makes her only superficially the aggressor. When deeper causes are considered, Germany struck in self-defence, and the action that made this necessary was England's decision.

I have stated as clearly and strongly as I can what seems to me to be the way in which many thoughtful Germans view the matter, following substantially Delbrück's argument and that of Dr. Daniels.

CHARLES E. OZANNE.

Cleveland Heights, O., January 4.

THE UNITED STATES AND ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is humiliating to think that we have placed even a straw in the way of England at this time. But five and a half million dollars' worth of American copper and three and a half million dollars' worth of American beef have been turned aside from their appointed destination, and certain men who could lose nine million dollars without serious inconvenience are worried. No one imagines that the British Government is going to confiscate this beef and copper and no one supposes that the owners of the aforesaid beef and copper are going to suffer any serious loss. But suppose the nine million dollars were lost, it would be only a small fraction of what we really owe Great Britain. She is spending nearly three times that sum each week fighting our battle that "the government of the people, for the people, and by the people may not perish from the earth." It is a battle royal between democracy and despotism as to which shall inherit the earth—and who has ever accused Prussian despotism of possessing or of even striving to possess the necessary Scriptural meekness? We are advised from certain quarters, eminently pious and respectable, that we should hold our tongues that we may deceive Germany into thinking that we are blind to the enormity of her crime—to the end that eventually we may be chosen arbiters of peace. But what sort of a peace? We do not care to have any part in any terms of peace that do not include at least the one provision, that Belgium shall be restored to herself and that she shall be reimbursed dollar for dollar for her material losses so far as that is possible.

It is not enough to say that we admire the heroic King of Belgium and his brave people. We owe it to Germany to be more explicit. It would be well if a trained starling might repeat thrice each day to the Kaiser and his Chancellor that dithyrambic and prophetic paragraph from Carlyle's French Revolution: "Borne over the Atlantic, to the closing ear of Louis, King by the Grace of God, what sounds are these; muffled, ominous, new in our centuries? Boston Harbor is black with unexpected tea; behold a Pennsylvanian Congress gather; and ere long, on Bunker Hill, Democracy announcing, in rifle volleys death-winged, under her Star Banner, to the tune of Yankee-doodle-doo, that she is born, and, whirlwind-like, will envelop the whole world!"

CHARLES NEWTON SMILEY.

Grinnell, Ia., January 2.

AN APPEAL FOR SERVIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a letter published in one of your recent issues (*Nation,* November 26, 1914, p. 629), Prof. Paul Darmstädter, of Göttingen, refers to the Servian nation as "that kingdom of criminals," whose machinations Austria, after years of patient endurance, was finally compelled to punish. This is certainly indicting a whole people with a vengeance, a thing which Burke has long since instructed us we should never do. Nor do I believe that any Servian, however much embittered against Austria, and her ally, Germany, would ever qualify these entire nations as criminals. He would probably restrict this term to their rulers and leaders of public opinion.

It has doubtless come to the knowledge of Americans that, although some Servians were perhaps members of the conspiracy to murder the Archduke Ferdinand, no evidence for the connection of the Servian authorities with it has ever been shown; that, on the contrary, the Servian Government, having learned that some such plot was being hatched in Bosnia by Austrian subjects, promptly warned Count Berchtold of the danger of the Crown Prince's projected visit to Serajevo; that very inadequate police measures were taken by Gen. Potiorek, the Governor of that city, who received a decoration, *after the assassination,* and that the death of the Archduke and his Slavic wife was received with unconcealed satisfiaction in high official and court circles at Vienna. And, finally, ex-Premier Giolitti's revelations to the Italian Chamber of Deputies have clearly proved, to quote your own editorial comment (*Nation,* December 10, 1914, p. 676), "that the assassination of the Archduke Ferdinand merely gave the Austrian Government a good excuse for proceeding with a warlike policy against Servia which it had long cherished." Such being the case, what wonder that it disregarded Servia's warning and did not give its victim, the Archduke, an adequate police protection?

But enough of controversy, at least for the present. I wish now to put before your readers, from information furnished me by his Excellency the Servian Minister at Rome, a statement of the urgent necessities of this heroic and gifted people, who are fighting for their most elementary rights and liberties. They have already accounted for four Austro-Hungarian army corps, but their splendid victories would be in some sense a misfortune if they should create the impression that their resources bear any proportion to their valor and success.

It should be borne in mind that Servia is now at war for the third time in two years, and that her resources, never abundant, were almost exhausted at the beginning of the present conflict. Her late victories would have been impossible had it not been for the sending of arms and munitions from France. Her Government and allies must, of course, first look to military necessities, which means the partial neglect of sick and wounded soldiers. Servia's most pressing need is hospital supplies and an adequate staff of physicians and nurses. The General Staff has even addressed

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

an urgent appeal to the managers of field hospitals to observe the strictest economy in the use of all surgical materials. Bandages must now be taken from partly healed or less severe wounds to be put on those that are fresher or more dangerous, and often the most necessary supplies, such as anæsthetics and surgeon's plaster, are quite unobtainable. A French nurse reports that lately at Valjevo she saw wounded soldiers "lying in the streets in the rain, on some straw and sacking. There were no surgeons to attend to them. Not only the sight but the smell of blood was everywhere as I passed along the streets."

There is, moreover, the direst need of food supplies for thousands of homeless refugees. The Austrian commanders, in their invasions, have in their barbarous treatment of non-combatants emulated the more celebrated exploits of their German allies in Belgium. Many villagers have been shot, and others, even children and aged men and women, have been carried into captivity. Terrified by such atrocities, large numbers have fled to the large towns and cities; and it should be remembered that Servian refugees, unlike the Belgian, cannot find hospitality in neighboring countries.

The needs are, in brief, money, personnel, and material. Now American hospital supplies and food products are so justly celebrated that gifts in these kinds would be just as acceptable as money to buy them with. Would a complete American Red Cross expedition, with ship, personnel, and supplies, be too much to hope for?

Madame Grouitch, an American by birth and wife of the former Servian Chargé-d'Affaires in London, who, during the first Balkan war, made a tour in the United States in aid of the Servian Red Cross, will soon repeat her efforts there in behalf of her adoptive compatriots. England has already generously responded to her appeal, and surely the same success awaits her in America. An American committee will doubtless be formed to receive gifts in money and in kind, and to see that they are promptly and effectively bestowed.

HOMER EDMISTON.

Rome, January 2.

PARALLELS FROM THE PAST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent's quotation from Diodorus in the *Nation* of December 24 recalls to my mind several parallels between ancient Greek thought and the thoughts that have found expression both in word and deed during the present European war. During the affair at Pylus and Sphacteria a truce was made between the Athenians and Lacedæmonians according to the terms of which the latter delivered to the former sixty ships to be held by them until an embassy went to Athens and returned. The conditions were made explicit, and it was especially stipulated that if either party violated the agreement in the least particular the truce was to be at an end. When the embassy returned from Athens to Pylus the Athenians refused to give back the ships, on the plea of some infraction on the part of the Peloponnesians. That it was a mere quibble Thucydides seems to take for granted, as he passes it without comment.

In Plato's "Republic" Adeimantus makes a long speech in which, among many other things, he says: "For if we are just, although we may escape the vengeance of heaven, we shall lose the gains of injustice; but if we are unjust we shall keep the gains, and by our sinning and praying and praying and sinning the gods will be propitiated, and we shall not be punished." It was a favorite argument with the Sophists that injustice is a term invented by the weaker party which it forgets as soon as it becomes the stronger. It is always easy to find a reason for believing what one wants to believe. In "Peveril of the Peak," Sir Walter Scott makes the Duke of Buckingham say: "One likes to vindicate his own conduct and to find out fine reasons for doing what one has a mind to."

The first report of the bombardment and partial destruction of Rheims Cathedral was soon followed by the justification on the part of the Germans that the French had used it as a fort. When this was disproved we were assured that cannon had been placed on the towers from which the Germans were fired on. Perhaps a few people believed this improbable story, but it, too, was soon found to be false. The next excuse was that the towers were used for lookout-posts, from which to watch the movements of the Germans. This assertion is now known to be as false as the preceding. Some of us are now wondering what will be the next justification for the commission of one of the worst acts of vandalism of the ages. It is worth keeping in mind that the Greeks, in their wars with one another, generally spared the temples and their contents. As they were "poor heathen," they knew no better.

Thousands of persons throughout the entire world, not excepting Germany, who have had the good fortune to look upon that gem of architectural beauty in its pristine loveliness and who now have the melancholy privilege of comparing their recollection with photographs of it in its condition of irreparable ruin, will not only feel their hearts bleed, as did that of the Kaiser for Louvain; they will also feel rising in them the fires of indignation against the perpetrators of such wanton destruction that will not burn themselves out as long as they live. And by the way, how long has it been since the Germans discovered that the Russians are barbarians? We may take it for granted as an axiom that any man or set of men who will justify almost any conceivable atrocity on the grounds of military necessity will also justify lying on the same ground.

CHARLES W. SUPER.

Athens, O., January 1.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I make a slight correction to a statement which appeared in your columns in the issue of January 21? On page 68, you say that courses in the Russian language and literature are not offered at three of the larger institutions of learning which might be expected to offer them, namely, Pennsylvania, Johns Hopkins, and Princeton. So far as the first-named institution is concerned, such would be the information to be secured from the Catalogue for 1913-14; but courses in Russian are offered this academic year for graduate and undergraduate students, by my colleague, Prof. Franklin Edgerton, and the undergraduate course is actually being given, having been elected by a surprisingly large number of students. It might be added that Dr. Edgerton conducted courses in Russian at Johns Hopkins University during the academic years 1911-12 and 1912-13, before he was called to Pennsylvania.

ROLAND G. KENT.

Philadelphia, January 22.

MISS HORNIMAN AND THE "NEW" SCENERY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The quotation attributed to me in the article, "The Modern Stage," in the *Nation* of November 26, is substantially correct. I certainly consider that the new stage arrangements, by which the "artist" usurps the place of the play itself, are not fair, either to the actors or the dramatist. "The play's the thing," and I strive to make it so at my theatre; from "producer" to call-boy, including the actors, we must all be servants of the Art.

At a performance of a Shakespearean play I have found my eyes closing when the most beautiful speeches began—just because I wanted to hear the glorious words in peace.

A. E. F. HORNIMAN.

London, December 30, 1914.

THE LATE W. W. ROCKHILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Allow me to supplement your obituary of the late W. W. Rockhill by reminding your readers of his Buddhistic scholarship. In 1884, Mr. Rockhill published a valuable book entitled "The Life of Buddha and the Early History of His Order." It appeared in Trübner's Oriental Series, and contained the leading features of Buddha's life and teaching, extracted from the Tibetan recension of the Scriptures. Though this version belongs to the ninth century and later, it preserves, among other things, the Realist recension of the Books of Discipline, which we can compare with Chinese versions of the same, translated centuries earlier, and thus arrive at a pretty good idea of the state of the text when the Sanskrit original is lost, except for fragments.

ALBERT J. EDMUNDS.

Philadelphia, December 20, 1914.

"PATER'S QUOTATIONS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In my article on "Pater's Quotations" in the *Nation* of October 1, 1914, I illustrated as specifically as possible the fundamental untrustworthiness of Pater's criticism. I connected his habit of putting quotation marks around passages which he had changed from the original with his "absolute misinterpretation of the facts of history in his languid picture of a Lacedæmon of æsthetes and of an early Christianity with taste and opportunity for ritual as elaborate as that of the later stages of the Oxford Movement." It was a similar phenomenon, equally reprehensible, equally significant for the study of Pater's work. It would have been but too easy to denounce a practice so contrary to ethics. I preferred to attempt to arrive at what would have been Pater's explanation and justification of a matter of style (for would not Pater have ignored the morality of the matter?) for which Anatole France afforded a partial analogy, but which in Pater's case is, of course, morally unjustifiable.

SAMUEL C. CHEW, JR.

Bryn Mawr College, January 15.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Literature

THE DUTY OF MAKING WAR.

Britain as Germany's Vassal. By Gen. Friedrich von Bernhardi. Translated by J. Ellis Barker. New York: George H. Doran Co. $1 net.

The title of this translation is not the author's. He called his book "Our Future: A Word of Warning to the German Nation." As the translator himself tells us, it "was published a year after the appearance of 'Germany and the Next War.'" The author informs us that when he was asked to popularize "Germany and the Next War" and to offer it to the public at a moderate price, he most gladly consented, as he could only welcome an opportunity of awakening Germany's national consciousness and of addressing to his compatriots the warning of the Great Elector: "Remember you are a German!" And he was all the more ready to take up his pen because the political tension of Europe had been intensified by the Balkan crisis.

If this book were simply an abridgment of the larger work, we could dismiss it from further consideration with this statement alone. But in fact the difference between the two books is not merely one of length. The author himself recognizes the difference: in addition to some of the ideas found in "Germany and the Next War," "there will also be found new views to which the present political position has given rise." Both works urge upon Germany the duty of making war; both undertake to establish Germany's moral right to make war; that is, Germany will be guilty of immorality if she does not make war. In the shorter work, the author assumes that government (or state) and nation (or people) are distinct entities: "Government and nation must understand and support one another," "only when government and people work hand in hand can the nation judge the policy of the government," etc. "The essence of the State is power. The State can fulfil the highest tasks of civilization . . . only if it offers to the citizens constantly growing possibilities to exist and develop." That conception of government which forms the great contribution of English-speaking peoples to civilization finds no place in von Bernhardi's philosophy.

Starting, then, from the implied view of the state as a distinct entity, it is asserted that "it is always immoral for a State to sacrifice its interests to a foreign State, for such action violates the foremost duty of the State, that towards itself. Weakness is the most reprehensible and the most contemptible sin of the State." Evidently, it is "equally immoral if a State does not strive to expand its power, if such an extension is required by an expanding population." But "the means employed by statesmanship must be moral." This condition shuts out the conclusion of treaties by which nations do not mean to be bound, nor must they ever "allow themselves to be bound by treaty obligations which endanger the existence of the State or are disadvantageous to it." "It follows that it is not only practically useful, but also morally necessary, for Germany to follow an honest, strong, and energetic policy of force . . . that we are entitled and compelled to take up arms if irreconcilable differences arise between Germany and other nations, or if we find that other States intend to prevent Germany's historically and biologically necessary development." Hence it is unreasonable to expect that Germany with her 65,000,000 inhabitants "should allow herself to be treated on a footing of equality with France with her 40,000,000 inhabitants," and that she should suffer Great Britain with her 45,000,000 to be arbiter "to the States of the Old World and to exercise an absolute supremacy on the sea."

An arrangement with England is indeed possible, under which she would give Germany an absolutely free hand in European politics, and agree to any increase of Germany's power on the Continent, and to any possible change in the map of North Africa made in Germany's or Italy's favor. Naturally, England would have to leave the Triple Entente, and besides would have to redistribute her fleet. In short, England would merely have to "stand down and out," leaving Germany free to have her own way in Africa, Asia Minor, and France, and to establish coaling stations over the world. Thus would the peace of Europe be permanently assured, to say nothing of the check that would be imposed on the growing influence of the United States. But England, of course, will never consent to such an arrangement, because her "entire world policy is conducted in a sense hostile to Germany." And it is England, and only England, that is "interested in bringing about at an early date a general war which will lead to a war between England and Germany."

We have, as far as possible, allowed the author to speak for himself. To comment on his views were superfluous. If this book really represents the German policy, its publication, from the German point of view, must be regarded as a blazing indiscretion. "Those whom the gods would destroy!" But it is assuredly noteworthy that recent events have fallen out much as von Bernhardi has indicated.

The war would probably originate from the Balkan situation. Turkey was to attack Russia in the south and in Asia Minor. Rumania might join the Entente. Italy's allegiance to the Alliance was open to suspicion. If Germany should decide to deal her first great blow at France, the Austrians were to take care of the Russians in the East. The English fleet was to be whittled down "by inflicting upon it losses here and there without ever allowing ourselves to be drawn into a struggle with superior forces. Then a moment may arrive when we can challenge England to a naval battle." Not all of Bernhardi's forecasts, however, have been verified. He doubts if the English Expeditionary Corps will be sent at once to the Continent. "Germany's military strength would receive some support if England or France should violate the Belgian, Dutch, or Danish neutrality by sea or by land." His predicted revolts in Egypt or India have not occurred, and the South African outbreak was soon put down. Bernhardi calls these revolts "factors with which we have to calculate and which we must utilize to our advantage. That is our duty."

It is impossible not to be struck by the conviction with which the book is written. How deep must be this conviction is evidenced by the author's ready passage from a consideration of Germany's politico-economic situation to war as the only remedy of the evils caused by her own success as a nation. He is convinced not only that Germany has moral right on her side, but, by inference at least, that other nations are in the wrong to oppose her ambitions.

The translator has increased the usefulness of his work by appending a few extracts from the "Customs of War," published by the German General Staff in 1902, and from the Rules of the Hague Conference of 1907, subscribed to by Germany. It is thus possible to compare her acts with her professions. We imagine, however, that, in the main, she will be found to have followed the rules of civilized warfare.

CURRENT FICTION.

The Awakening. By Henry Bordeaux. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.

On the same plot as Strindberg's "The Link"—the difficulties of divorce when man and wife are joined by children—Henry Bordeaux has built an exposition of his familiar doctrine of the family as the unit of society, before which individual and state alike must bow. "The chief aim of marriage," he declares through one of his characters, "is not the happiness of husband and wife. It is the foundation of a family, the child. That alone gives marriage a positive value. After the birth of the child, life ceases to be a search for happiness." The narrative is simple, and interesting mainly for the minute characterization and careful psychology exhibited in the trilogy of inharmonious figures—Albert Derize, the brilliant author of sociological histories, his neglected wife, Elizabeth Derize, and the Mlle. de Sezery in whom he finds a true intellectual and social companion. The emotional effects, inasmuch as the story plunges *in medias res* with the opening of the divorce suit, are those of the rapid illusionment and *rapprochement* of the parents. The discovery by Mme. Derize of a diary written by her husband during their mid-channel period of domestic life reveals to her how cold, self-centred, and unintellectual a wife she had been; simultaneously M. Derize is wrought upon by the social ideas in the "History of the Peasant" he is composing, by his affection for his children, and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

by doubt of his relations with Mlle. de Sezery.

When at last mere business arrangements for the care of their children bring them together, there follows an adjustment of all their misunderstandings, the consummation of a mature and sympathetic union, and the final establishment of their family life. The undercurrent of the novel is a defence of the husband, who—outwardly wholly at fault—is in reality the party sinned against. Here the application of the story may be convincingly wide. Its moral effect in its abstract exaltation of the family, however, is marred by two considerations. The characters in no way represent the large class for which divorce may be a real salvation from worse evils than family disruption; and, though M. Bordeaux preaches that the individual must be sacrificed for each new generation, here the reunion involves not the least sacrifice, but is in every way expedient and pleasant.

Private Affairs. By Charles McEvoy. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

This is in the main an entertaining book with an utterly unsatisfactory conclusion. Such endings have been in some favor of late years, and represent one among the perils of realism. If we grant that the function of the novelist is to take a chunk out of life somewhere at random and describe just what constitutes that chunk, then there is no reason why a book should end at any one place rather than at any other; but equally it might be urged that there is no reason why it should be written at all. If, however, we prefer to regard the novel as a work of art, then we have a right to expect of it some definite form, a beginning, a middle, and an end. Mr. McEvoy's book has the first two, but neglects to append the last, leaving the exhausted heroine reclining luxuriously on her bed the while she sips an infusion of China tea, but omitting to inform the reader whether (a) she marries her aristocratic wooer, or (b) continues her stage career, or (c) just relapses into the monotony of home life as the youngest daughter in an English household of the middle class. Except for the inconclusive finish, "Private Affairs" is a sufficiently interesting and well-written story. The description of the household in the suburbs of London, dominated by a paterfamilias whose ideas of parental authority reflect exactly that designation, is extremely good, and the character of the father, sordid, selfish, grasping, with some of the virtues and most of the vices of his puritan ancestry, is well drawn. The wife, too, and the two elder daughters, and the son, are all distinctive characterizations. Unfortunately, Mr. McEvoy is less successful in defining the character of his heroine, the youngest girl, to whom comes an amazing opportunity to achieve success on the stage—an opportunity of which she is enabled to take advantage through her father's greed, overcoming his puritanic principles. But her character is somewhat colorless, and her theatric success we accept without conviction, taking the author's word for it, but making a mental reservation. What the author attempts to do is to depict the sex perplexity of a young girl, brought up in the tradition of ignorance in these matters; what he succeeds in doing is to interest us in the externals of her story, and then leave us in darkness as to its conclusion.

My Husband Still. Compiled by Helen Hamilton. New York: The Macmillan Co.

This is a book with a purpose, set forth in the "Foreword" by John Galsworthy; a plea addressed particularly to English readers for a reform in the divorce laws, which shall bring permanent relief from unhappy marriage within the means of the poor. It belongs in the class of "human documents," having been compiled from the writings and conversation of the workingwoman who narrates her experience. Viewed as literature, it lacks the artlessness which makes the art of "The Ragged Trowsered Philanthropist" or of "Marie-Claire," and the hand of the compiler, pointing a moral or adorning a tale with unnecessary unctuousness, is at times clearly seen. The book, however, telling the simple story of a woman of the poorer classes, unhappily married, giving her husband chance after chance of redeeming himself, only on each occasion to be subjected to renewed brutality and humiliation, and unable to obtain the relief of divorce, makes its appeal on account of its sheer sincerity. It is a perfectly accurate picture of a tragedy that occurs in a thousand homes of the poor in England, and that might be relieved were there not in the matter of divorce "one law for the rich and another for the poor."

The Lone Star Ranger. By Zane Grey. New York: Harper & Bros.

Whether as outlaw or as one of the famous band of Texas Rangers who cleared the State of the rustlers, robbers, and outlaws some years ago, Buck Duane is a fine character, in spite of his deadly readiness with his gun, and even in his worst moments when the inherited lust for blood overwhelms him. Driven into hiding by untoward circumstances when barely in his teens, he leads a lawless life until he is gathered into the fold by the captain of the Rangers. Thereafter he devotes his energies to the dispersal of the bands of cattle thieves which infest the State, one of which is led by the father of Ray Longstrieth, with whom he is in love. He has many narrow escapes from death, and in the end nearly succumbs to wounds received in defending a bank. He is nursed back to life by Ray, and they leave the Lone Star State far behind and settle on Ray's plantation in Louisiana. It is a well-told tale, and the interest never flags.

The Rosie World. By Parker Fillmore. New York: Henry Holt & Co.

Many of the chapters of this book have appeared as short stories in various periodicals, but one who has read them piecemeal and enjoyed their rich humor and keen insight into human nature will be glad to read them all again, linked as they are in the book. The amazing thing is how a mere man can so understand the vagaries of several kinds of femininity, from forty-or-so-year-old Maggie O'Brien down to little Geraldine, in the throes of teething during the midsummer heat of New York. Rosie herself is one of the sweetest creations in present-day fiction. She has no more sense of humor than John Shand, but when one has not a tear in the eye over her big-heartedness, her earnestness in doing what she believes to be her duty, one has tears in both eyes over the Irish humor of the situations that her earnestness and lack of humor so often call out. To one who enjoys genuine humor, without a hint of coarseness, who prefers little pictures from life that leave a good taste in the mouth, and who appreciates the setting forth of such pictures in good English, this collection will be distinctly welcome.

PAN-AMERICANISM.

American Policy: The Western Hemisphere in Its Relation to the Eastern. By Major John Bigelow. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $1 net.

Major Bigelow's work embodies many virtues generally lacking in such books, and particularly refreshing just now; for an increasing flood of printed pages upon international questions is at present an all but sinister literary phenomenon. What pure metaphysics once was to the churchman, internationalism might become to the twentieth-century casuist. A short book, therefore, is sure to possess one obvious virtue, at least. Yet when the reader lays aside Major Bigelow's study he will probably wish that it were longer. It is concise, logical, charmingly definite in places, well balanced, and filled with epigrammatic generalizations which by their trenchant crispness compel attention. The work is characterized by sober common-sense, and is therefore generally free of that fault which Professor Dunning had in mind when he recently wrote: "The discussion of international relations is almost invariably tainted with the fallacy of too sweeping generalizations."

Its four chapters discuss: (1) The characteristics of Latin-America and the United States which retard international coöperation, invite foreign intervention, and account for the Monroe Doctrine; (2) the origin and meaning of the so-called Washington Precept and Monroe Doctrine in the effort by the United States to secure Western political isolation; (3) the historical application of the Doctrine, its contravention and violation; (4) the modification of the Monroe Doctrine through the development of Pan-Americanism. Major Bigelow seeks to present the basic facts upon which any all-American policy rests to-day, and must rest in the immediate future—facts concerning the distribution of population, commercial intercourse, cultural similarity and dissimilarity, and certain policies and prejudices springing from American

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

idealism, nationalism, and self-interest, all of which profoundly affect the Western Hemisphere's relation with the rest of the world. His discussion of these rather broad and little understood subjects might be summarized as follows:

The radical differences in racial, material, and intellectual development between the United States and Latin-America constitute both an all but insuperable obstacle to a really harmonious all-American policy and an important cause of American policy being what it is. The Latin-American republics are less populous, poorer, less enlightened, and weaker than their northern neighbor. This weakness constitutes the *raison d'être* for a common American foreign policy, since in union are strength and protection. But the same factors, contributing to the weakness of the southern republics and so rendering a diplomatic union necessary, retard the development of a really effective Pan-Americanism. The first obvious factor given in this case is the character of the Latin race itself. It is described as "theoretical, abstract, idealistic," whereas the "United States race" is "cosmopolitan, practical, concrete, materialistic." This generalization concerning the Latin race may be true, but would certainly be difficult to prove. The Latin race, according to Major Bigelow, is made to include, presumably, most of the inhabitants of Latin-America. But the people of Latin-America are in large part not Latin. Eighty-five per cent. of them are not white, and this 85 per cent. is not relegated to the position of a negligible class in the political, social, and intellectual concerns of most Latin-American republics. The difference between the people of the United States and the European Latin race is trifling compared with the difference betwen the people of the United States and this particular variation of Latin, negro, and Indian race to the south. Prejudice against color on the one hand, and the racial peculiarities of the Indian and negro on the other, stand as a very real barrier to close coöperation between the United States and most of her southern neighbors. It is not that many of them are Latin in culture that counts so much, but rather that most of them are not Latin in culture and are so largely mulatto, mestizo, and zambo in blood. There is a Latin-American type of mind. It is not North American or European.

A prime cause making necessary a Pan-American policy is—with certain notable exceptions—the political and financial instability of the republics to the south, because this weakness continually invites aggression on the part of European Powers. This instability seems to arise from the very preponderance of colored population. Relative sparseness of total population, dense ignorance of the masses, and backwardness in material development are powerful contributory causes to such instability. But "why is it that Latin-America, with its greater extent of territory and at least equality with the United States in point of soil and climate, is behind the United States in population and resources?" The answer to this query, according to Major Bigelow, is lack of immigration and lack of popular education. "In America, to govern is to populate." There is a nice interdependence of race and government, for the race is responsible for the Government, and the Government, by its influence upon immigration and its regulating of it, can become an instrument for remoulding the race. The governments of Latin-America have long been favoring a limited or select immigration. A larger immigration is needed in order to change fundamentally the very character of the nations—or some of them. But it is useless to advocate that nations deliberately adopt measures to achieve this object. Races do not take kindly to changing their identity.

It will not be therefore to become like other people, or to prevent conflicts with them, so much as to improve the domestic, particularly industrial, conditions under which they live, that Latin-Americans will attend seriously to fostering immigration.

The movement has begun. South America, considered by James Bryce "the chief resource to which the over-peopled countries may look as providing a field for their immigration," has already felt the coming of the new tide of humanity from Europe which will profoundly change in time internal conditions and foreign policy, and this change will modify the diplomacy of the United States.

According to Major Bigelow, the foreign policy of the United States is based upon three cardinal principles, namely: (1) The abstention from permanent alliances with non-American powers—the Washington Precept; (2) non-intervention by non-American Powers in the affairs of the Western Hemisphere—the Monroe Doctrine; (3) the coöperation of all American nations for the maintenance of American control of the Western Hemisphere—Pan-Americanism. Of the three principles enumerated here, that which has exerted certainly the most influence is the Monroe Doctrine. It has become an integral part not only of United States policy, but of American policy. It must be counted on as a possible factor in the diplomacy of every American nation where controversies with non-American Powers are up for settlement. In his analysis of the doctrine Major Bigelow sets forth some very frank and striking opinions, significant in light of recent events.

He understands the doctrine as frankly egotistical and national, with little of Pan-American altruism about it. It speaks primarily for the United States and its interests, and not for the Western Hemisphere and its interests. It enunciates not a legal right, but a national policy based upon a natural right—the right of self-protection. Such protection would include not only protection from war and invasion, but from the exhausting process of preparing for war and invasion—the cost of a great army and a greater navy. So far we have succeeded in applying the Doctrine with a small army and a relatively small navy. The Monroe Doctrine does not commit the United States to any belligerent action—but it implies it in case of contravention. Territorially, the sphere of the Doctrine is indeterminate, but it includes, probably, all of North and South America, and is "more likely to be enlarged than to be diminished." With the opening of the Panama Canal "no point in South America is far enough from the United States to admit of its colonization by a non-American Power without contravening the Doctrine." It is directed not only against certain forms of government, but also, and perhaps more, against any combination of governments and its collective policy. European control and influence in America might be "so enlarged as to make the Western Hemisphere but an annex to the Eastern, eliminating the new world as such by incorporating it in the old, nullifying the Washington Precept by making the affairs of European nations the affairs of American, and necessarily extending the concert and alliances and ententes of Europe to include all America." If the foregoing be sound reasoning, then any political alliance of an American sovereign state with a non-American Power would be a contravention of the Doctrine, and might well lead to the serious embarrassment of the United States.

The Doctrine recognizes the existence of European possessions in the West, but this does not commit the United States to approve or permit the transfer of such possessions by one non-American Power to another. "On the contrary, it warrants the prevention of such transfer," yet the author concludes that outraged creditor nations might invade an American country for the collection of debts, without contravening the Doctrine. The United States, he thinks, has never sought territory or special privileges under cover of the Monroe Doctrine. There is no justification, historically or otherwise, in the charge by foreign critics that the United States "means to be supreme among the nations of the Western Hemisphere, with a view of the gradual absorption of the latter." Nor can the jingoes of the United States find any justification for an aggressive policy towards Latin-America under the Doctrine. It has nothing at all to do with conquest or exploitation. It does not make the United States the protector of any country except in so far as an attempt upon that country may be a danger or menace to the United States. Major Bigelow admits, however, that "if Latin-America does not develop the population and resources necessary to self-protection, the question will not be whether the United States or Europe shall protect it, but whether the United States or Europe shall absorb it."

So far, the Monroe Doctrine, construed to cover the Western Hemisphere, goes far towards answering practically the essential purpose of Pan-Americanism—that is, diplomatic or political Pan-Americanism. The material and intellectual development of Latin-America; the sound extension of financial and commercial relations between American States and peoples; the rational influence of

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

such institutions as the Pan-American Union bid fair to change the older and dangerous Monroeism into an effective and safer Pan-Americanism—"a product of common occupancy of the Western Hemisphere, common European origin, common republican forms or ideals of government," common needs in commerce and industry, and common faith in the completest, broadest democracy.

THREE CENTURIES OF EUROPE.

The Renaissance, the Protestant Reformation, and the Catholic Reformation in Continental Europe. By Edward Maslin Hulme. New York: The Century Co. $2.50

To present in a single volume the story of the Great Transition which comprises the Renaissance, the Protestant Reformation, and the Catholic Reformation, even though it restricts itself to the Continent of Europe, is a task from which any one who was not either a master or a textbook manufacturer might well shrink. It is the fact that Professor Hulme is neither of these two things that gives to the present volume its rather peculiar interest. Perhaps it would be more correct to say that he is a little of both, for some parts of his problem are handled with a master's touch, while other parts betray the purpose of the pedagogue to say "something about everything," and that is the brand of the textbook in the worst American sense.

There is throughout the book evidence that the author has read very widely and under wise guidance. The dedication to Prof. George Burr would be an assurance of that. He has kept himself remarkably free from conventional judgments. Seldom is there evidence of a hasty acceptance of those formulas on which so much superficial writing of history is based. He has read with a view to reaching sound conclusions; but the trail of the "latest German" is notably absent. Of the "apparatus of scholarship" the only trace is a frequent use of quotation marks, but even these are generally without reference to their source. In all this we think Professor Hulme has done well. As the book lies before us, it is his book; no one else is responsible for more than the general plan, and it must be judged on its merits alone.

Professor Hulme is the possessor of an enviable English style. He writes easily, with a command of words which does not mean here, as it so often does, that words command him. In the more general parts of the book, especially in the introductions to the several sections, he rises at times to real literary power. In the little chapter on the Revival of the Individual, for example, we have a really brilliant bit of characterization. It is refreshing to see that our author is not afraid to stand by the well-proven distinctions between the Middle Ages and modern times, and is not carried away by some recent attempts to blur these distinctions.

With these merits of wide reading and skilful presentation are combined corresponding defects. One asks inevitably for what audience a book of this sort is intended. The first answer would naturally be: for advanced students in college; the second: for the "general reader," and a third reflection, which is not an answer, would be: it cannot meet the needs of either class. For the use of students a book must be either a guide to other books or it must be sufficient in itself. This book, because it aims to be both, is neither the one nor the other. Its philosophy goes over the heads of students; its narrative is spread out too thin over a vast surface to be quite satisfactory anywhere. In the effort to put in the high lights with adequate distinctness, a quantity of detail needed to make these intelligible must be sacrificed. There is enough material here for at least three volumes, and we feel convinced that Mr. Hulme is quite equal to the task of writing them. It will be worth while if this volume shall prove to be a bit of self-discipline, a taking account of stock, as it were, to be followed by a more complete presentation of the manifold activities of these three hundred crowded years of European life. Meanwhile we commend it to readers already well versed in the many subjects it deals with, as an interesting résumé and a helpful manual.

THE ORIGINAL ODYSSEUS.

Studies in the Odyssey. By J. A. K. Thomson. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press. 7s. 6d. net.

The late A. W. Verrall, as one of his familiar whimsies, related with all seriousness that he once dreamed he was on a train; the train stopped at a station. Some one in the carriage asked what place it was, and some one else replied "Miletus." Verrall put his head out of the window and saw close at hand a factory, on the blank wall of which was painted in large letters, "Epic Cycle Works, Limited."

If Verrall had read Mr. Thomson's "Studies in the Odyssey" he would have seen in his dream a near-by repair shop with the sign, "Parts of Cycles of All Makes Quickly Supplied." The book is not so much a study of the Odyssey as we know it, but rather of what the Germans would call an Ur-Odyssea. The author possesses a very great knowledge of Greek epic material; over this he has pored with a vivid imagination, and has tried to see the far-distant origins of the Odyssey. The poem as it stands is, according to his theory, mere idealized and delocalized versions of primitive myth and belief; behind its present body he would see what the late Professor Lane would call the semi-fœtal embryo from which it developed. Many of his guesses and conjectures are extremely brilliant and probable, but he often leaps from one probability to another, and then forgets that he has no solid bridges behind him. In very many cases the reader can only say that in his opinion the author is right or wrong; occasionally even the author has the feeling that his speculations are no more than speculations:

> At best it is but a confused picture that we can ever hope to win of the world in which the Homeric Poems began to gather shape. It is better to have it so than to reduce it to an unwarranted symmetry. But we must not spare ourselves the effort of reconstruction, and to make this we must know the evidence. Part of the evidence—that which bears upon the fortunes of a people with Minyan traditions, who migrated from Boeotia by way of the Isthmos and Arcadia, to Pylos in Triphylia, and from there overflowed into the Ionian Islands, and ultimately, starting from Pylos, took a prominent part in the colonization of Ionia—has been considered in detail, because it supplies us with an historical explanation of the rise and development of the Odysseus legend. We have tried to follow the progress of this people from their earliest discoverable seats in Central Greece, first to Corinth with its Minyan memories, then to Pheneos and Mantineia, then to Olympia with its story of the Minyan Salmoneus, then to Pylos, under the rule, it was said, of the aged Nestor, whose life is the history of his folk—the youthful fighting with the Centaurs of Pelion, the burying of his father Neleus in Corinth, the forays against half-conquered Arcadians and Epeians. We have found the worship of Poseidon Hippios, with which they were so much concerned, at Corinth, at Mantineia, at Olympia—where the perhaps Boeotian Pelops won Hippodameia with the winged steeds of the god, and whence Oinomaos used to drive to the altars of Poseidon at the Isthmos—at Pylos, where the Horse-god taught Antilochos the art of chariotry. Then he takes to the sea and becomes a Sea-god, crossing the Aegean with his worshippers to Mykale, where he unites them in his service as he had united them at Samikon. I cannot think of any tribal migration in the background of Greek history which has left clearer or more consecutive traces of its course. Certainly many things may have happened which, if we knew them, would give us a considerably different impression of what actually occurred; and it may be that even this minor movement which we have been trying to follow had less continuity, and the people less homogeneity, than we have been imagining. Yet if the movement took place at all, and if the general course of it was what has been suggested, that will be enough for our purpose. For I hope to show that the Odyssey embodies the legends of this people.

So long a quotation is justified because it summarizes a considerable portion of the book. In Mr. Thomson's problem of searching for the origins of the Odyssey questions of mythology and religion are the fundamental ones; Miss Harrison, Dr. Frazer, and Gilbert Murray are the scholars who have influenced him most. His first chapter is intended to reveal the depth of the background against which the shining figures of the Homeric poetry move, and how much of latent and unexpurgated magic and savagery lurks in that unexplored region. In this he follows close upon Gilbert Murray. This theory of the gradual expurgation of the savage and terrible has been almost a necessary part of the theory of believers in traditional poetry who insist on

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

carrying the origins very far back; events of the present time, however, would indicate that "expurgation" of the terrible from tales of a civilized people is hardly as necessary as some have thought.

In Odysseus, Mr. Thomson would see a conflatio of local heroes of Bœotian origin; in certain aspects he is a double of Autolycus, who again is a double of Hermes. Autolycus dwelt upon Parnassus; in the shadow of the mountain is the Bœotian town of Lebadia, where was a buried hero called Arcesilaus; Acrisius, the name of Odysseus's grandfather, the progenitor of the race, is a form of Arcesilaus; and a son of Odysseus was called Arcesilaus after his great-grandfather. This younger Arcesilaus was a reputed ancestor of the Battiad princes of Cyrene, who claimed to be Minyans from Central Greece—Argal; Odysseus is a local Minyan-Bœotian hero-divinity; if more proof is wanted of his origin, why did Odysseus in the eleventh book of our Odyssey visit the Theban Tiresias in the realm of the dead and behold the beautiful dames of days gone by, almost all of them of Minyan-Bœotian connection? And does not his descent to the realm of the dead and his return thence prove him a divinity, an Eniautos-Daimon or Seasonal God? Our present Odyssey shows the hero as the wanderer; Mr. Thomson would make his cult, too, of the wandering type, as the quotation already cited shows; as the hero migrates his worshippers encounter a Water-Fowl divinity connected with the Spring Arne at Mantinea. She is Penelope. The marriage of Odysseus and Penelope is a mythological way of expressing the meeting and fusing of Odysseus-worshippers from Bœotia with the Arcadian people who worshipped Penelope. The same method of rationalizing accounts for the close association of Athena with Odysseus; he was born close by her temple at Bœotian Alalkomenæ.

Mr. Thomson discusses interestingly the question of "Who were the Achæans?" He decides they were a people of "North-Western" affinities, distinct from the Æolians; the epos was not their creation, but belonged to the Ionians; the prominence of the Achæans in the story is due to Achæan prestige at a formative stage in the growth of the heroic poetry. The "Achæanization" of Homer is used to explain discrepancies such as inhumation and burning of the dead and the confusion of older and newer types of weapons.

The last two chapters treat of the conditions under which the story of Odysseus took the form of our Odyssey. The rhapsode is the successor of the Aoidos; he proposes to deliver the words of "Homer," but in practice he may alter or add to these up to a certain limit, defined for him by the approval of his audience. The Iliad and Odyssey obtained their present form through the coöperation of two factors, the genius of successive poets working within the epic convention, and the controlling taste of successive audiences. "Homer" himself was the traditional author of the hymn sung to Apollo at the festival held every four years at Delos. Indeed, "Homer" is a double of, or a parallel to, Apollo himself in his capacity of Aoidos. The hymn sung at Delos had for its subject the Birth-story, as in that place the most significant part of the whole Life-story; the Homeric epos is an expansion of the hymn.

Much of Mr. Thomson's book comes under the heading, "Interesting if true." He has written a work, however, that is not only important for the student of epic poetry, but must also be taken into account by those interested in myth and history.

GALLIA REDIVIVA.

France Herself Again. By Ernest Dimnet. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50 net.

Not many historical prophets have been so fortunate as the Abbé Dimnet, who wrote, several months in advance of the present war, a characterization of the France of to-day. Persons not so lucky as to know this France at first hand are expressing a rather naïve surprise at the spectacle of a strong, united nation fighting for its life without illusions and without rhetoric, as simply and quietly as an army of doctors and nurses would fight the bubonic plague. The formation of this sane, determined France, M. Dimnet traces from the Tangier incident in 1905, which inspired again the discredited passion of patriotism. He believes that history will classify not only the political fortunes, but the thought, science, letters, arts, and manners of the French into pre- and post-Tangerine periods, with a second emphasis on the Agadir incident of 1911. This thesis gives him an opportunity to review, from the point of view of a cleric and a monarchist, the sequence of French ideas from the Second Empire to last autumn, for he has a final chapter written after the outbreak of the war. Napoleon the Third himself is gently dealt with as a "kind and good man who loved his country," and whose idealism was to blame if, after helping Italy into the world and paving the way for Germany's greatness, he left France dismembered and humiliated. Yet from the leading minds of the Second Empire, from Littré and Taine and Renan, M. Dimnet derives "the skeptical, pessimistic, nihilistic generations which we shall see leading France from bad to worse during the first thirty-five years of the Republic."

However strained this view may seem, its presentation is full of interest. M. Dimnet is a literary critic of well-known talent, and the appreciations strewn through his book are incisive, witty, and thought-provoking. Anatole France, M. Bergson, and M. Georges Sorel (at least as much a man of letters as a social teacher) are discussed in enjoyable pages. The novel and the stage, the taste for athletics, the manners of the rising generation, are entertainingly reviewed in their bearing on the new strength of France. And purely political questions, as hackneyed as the Dreyfus affair, as controversial as "Combism," as complicated as syndicalism, are treated with the same lucidity and candor. M. Dimnet quotes often, and with approval, the opinions of M. Faguet, but while M. Faguet, despite his sorrowful knowledge of the weak points of French democracy, still declares that the best constitution is generally the one you have, M. Dimnet is emphatic in his opinion that the new France must be more strongly governed.

The march of events gave our author a dramatic climax:

> The real epilogue to this book was written in the facts themselves during the last days of July and the first days of August, 1914. One week saw the acquittal of Madame Caillaux and the response to the mobilization order, and showed beyond a doubt that what is the main certainty running through these four hundred pages, viz., that if France was the victim of politicians her own heart was sound, cannot be shaken now. Four days after the sickening exhibition of sentimental decadence in certain Parisian spheres, and of the loss of honor among a certain section of the French magistracy, while the smell of decay was still in the air, the bells calling the French nation to arms were heard in every town and village, and in one moment M. Caillaux and his party with its ambitions and corruptions vanished from view as if they had never existed. . . . So in these weeks during which all her vital qualities were one after the other tested, France proved that, far from being in decadence, as superficial observers had imagined her, she was capable of self-possession resting on the clearest understanding of a situation, of enduring courage, of a slowly gathered capacity for discipline, in short, of all the manly virtues which, since her awakening from dreams and theories, have made her a nation again instead of the home of millions of individuals, each one apparently engaged in the pursuit of his own ideal or pleasure.

GARDINER'S HISTORY OF HARVARD.

Harvard. By John Hays Gardiner. New York: Oxford University Press. $1.50 net.

An account of a college may be written for prospective freshmen and their parents; it may be addressed to alumni, whose loyalty, already secure, needs merely the latest news to keep it intelligent; or it may be addressed to the student of education, who regards it as an historical document. Whichever of these aims he may follow, or however he may combine them, the author of a short book about a college, particularly if it be his own college, can hardly be conceived as finishing his work without dissatisfaction at its shortcomings. He must have played the biographer, the critic, and the historian. He must have indicated the connection of his subject with church, and state, and community. He must have shown what the college has consciously tried to achieve, and wherein it has unconsciously failed. Professors and athletics, clubs and libraries, great occasions and foolish customs, all must have received their due.

In the case of the present volume, criticism is particularly difficult, because the

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

author did not live to see his book through the press. John Hays Gardiner graduated from Harvard in 1885, taught there from 1892 to 1910, and was from 1911 until his death (May 14, 1913) editor of the *Harvard Alumni Bulletin*. He had finished, but had not revised, his manuscript, which has been seen through the press by a number of his friends.

The first part of the book traces in about fifty pages the history of the University from its foundation in 1636 to the beginning of President Eliot's administration in 1869. Necessarily, the author follows Quincy in this part of the book, but he unfortunately makes a number of mistakes in copying. Some of these, such as the mistake in Thomas Shepard's name (on the very first page of the book), are so apparent as not to be misleading; others, such as the error in regard to the date of the fire of 1764, are less likely to be detected. On the whole, the sketch of early Harvard history is perhaps the weakest part of the book.

The strongest and most interesting part of the book is the summary of President Eliot's administration (pages 45 to 91). During more than half of this period Professor Gardiner was connected with the University, either as an undergraduate or as an instructor, and his observation of affairs was evidently intelligent. The great achievements of President Eliot's administration Professor Gardiner finds to be the development of a series of graduate professional schools, based upon "a great and strong college of liberal arts."

Having brought the history of the University down to the present time, Professor Gardiner continues his work in chapters upon Harvard College (about 80 pages), the Graduate Schools (50 pages), Equipment for Research (60 pages), and the Government and the Graduates (25 pages). To this part of the book the general objection may be made that it is too detailed as regards subject matter, and too dull and guide-bookish in respect to style. It does not interest most people to know that "the equipment of the Observatory now consists of the original 15-inch equatorial, the meridian circle, whose work in its present form may be regarded as completed, a 24-inch reflector, a 12-inch meridian photometer, and the two Draper telescopes, an 11-inch and an 8-inch." On the other hand, such details as those on pages 283 and 284 are amply worth their space, for they explain in the words of an intelligent layman the bearing of certain highly technical scientific undertakings. One wishes that, in order to make more room for this kind of comment, Professor Gardiner either could have omitted a portion of his statistics and inventories, or could have put them into footnotes, tables, or appendices, in order to clear and brighten his text. Yet, in spite of the bulk of this detail and the tendency of the author to fall into the unattractive phraseology of college catalogues, the total effect is undoubtedly impressive, though not infrequently the general view is obscured and the movement of the book impeded.

Many readers will regret the absence of brief sketches or portraits of Harvard worthies. The dates, titles, and academic importance of many such persons are necessarily indicated here and there throughout the work; but the individuality of a university consists to no slight extent in the individuality of a few great teachers—they may or may not be scholars—whose personalities are so powerful and distinctive that they survive in anecdote if not in biography. Harvard has had many such, though they make little figure in Professor Gardiner's pages. One longs for a few such sketches as Lowell's of Popkin (in "Cambridge Thirty Years Ago"), or Palmer's of Sophocles (in "The Teacher"). One also asks, where is Lowell himself? Where is Shaler? Where are Sibley, and Child, and Norton, and Hill, and Cooke, and Lane? No graduate's recollection of the Harvard of their time is complete without them. In fact, they, far more than libraries or apparatus or requirements for degrees, are the real Harvard.

Notes

"What Is Wrong with Germany?" by W. Harbutt Dawson, will be issued early next month by Longmans, Green & Co.

Brentano's announces the publication of a new and cheaper edition of Mügge's "Friedrich Nietzsche: His Life and Work."

"Before the Gringo Came," by Gertrude Atherton; "The Good Shepherd," by John Roland, and "Sir John French," by Cecil Chisholm, are announced for immediate publication by Frederick A. Stokes Company.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce the publication of the following volumes: "Three Gentlemen from New Caledonia," by R. D. Hemingway and Henry de Halsalle; "The Earth: Its Life and Its Death," by A. Berget; "Alsace and Lorraine," by Ruth Putnam; "Ægean Archæology: An Introduction to the Archæology of Prehistoric Greece," by H. R. Hall.

The following volumes are included in the spring list of Stewart & Kidd Company: "The Gardenette," by Benjamin F. Albaugh; "The Yellowstone National Park," by Gen. Hiram M. Chittenden; "Sketches of Great Painters," by Edwin Watts Chubb; "Tales from the Old World and the New," by Sophie M. Collman; "How to Write Moving-Picture Plays," by W. L. Gordon.

Small, Maynard & Co. announce the inauguration of a sociological series under the general title of the Welfare Library. The first two volumes of the series will be published in March, and will be entitled "The Field of Social Service," edited by Philip Davis, and "Consumption: What It Is and What to Do About It," by John B. Hawes, 2d. "A Message to the Middle Class," by Seymour Deming, will follow in April, and "Streetland, Its Little People and Big Problems," by Philip Davis, in May.

The following books will be published by Houghton Mifflin Co. early next month: "Kitchener: Organizer of Victory," by Harold Begbie; "The Life of Edward Rowland Sill," by William Belmont Parker; "The Higher Individualism," by Edward Scribner Ames; "Katy Gaumer," by Elsie Singmaster; "Conciliation and Arbitration in the Coal Trade of America," by Arthur Elliott Suffern; "Welfare as an Economic Quality," by G. P. Watkins; "The New Chief Contemporary Dramatists," by Thomas H. Dickenson; Ploetz's "Handbook of Universal History" (new edition).

Announcement is made by the General Organizing Committee of the Fifth International Congress of Philosophy that the meeting which was to have been held in London next September has been abandoned on account of the war. The members of the Committee pledge themselves "as soon as possible after peace is restored to promote with all our power the continuance of this international bond, either by renewing the invitation to meet in this country [England] or by obtaining an invitation from a neutral country."

We have received from Funk & Wagnalls "The Desk Standard Dictionary." It is an abridgment of the same firm's "New Standard Dictionary," issued about a year ago, and reviewed in these columns March 12 last.

It has been decided by Cardinal Bourne and Mr. A. C. Benson, as representatives of the late Monsignor R. H. Benson, that an authorized biography shall be issued covering the whole period of his life. The representatives would be much indebted to any persons who have letters from Monsignor Benson if they would kindly lend them. They could be sent either to Mr. A. C. Benson at the Old Lodge, Magdalene College, Cambridge, England; or to His Eminence Cardinal Bourne, at Archbishop's House, Westminster, London, S. W., or to the publishers, Messrs. Longmans, Green & Co., 39 Paternoster Row, London E. C., and all letters so sent will be returned, as soon as possible, to their owners. No letters will be printed without the consent of the sender.

Decidedly the work of a Gaelic enthusiast is "The Making of the Roman People," by Thomas Lloyd, known heretofore for his writings on bimetallism and other economic subjects (Longmans; $1.50 net). In brief, the *populus Romanus* was made, or rather made over, by an early and historically forgotten inroad of Gaulish (Gaelic) conquerors. These invaders, comparatively few in number, subdued a numerous primitive population, which the author identifies as belonging to "the brown race" and not of the Indo-European language group. The tongue of the conquerors prevailed, and the two elements became in time the patricians and plebeians of Roman history. This theory Mr. Thomas buttresses by some seventy pages on "The Affinity of Latin and Gaelic." At the outset, he admits that he has small expectation of convincing "men who have attained a certain age." Such persons have made up their minds, and are not disposed to give a patient hearing to an unsettling argument. His appeal is rather to the newer generation, who are supposed to be seeking after truth for truth's sake. As his "certain age" is not defined, it is doubtless intended that the critic who finds himself in disagreement with the theory should consider himself as *ipso facto* beyond that age.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The somewhat arrogant assumption involved in this sort of introduction to his argument, coupled with the author's evident lack of technical qualification for minute philological investigation, tempts one to retort that his conclusions are likely to meet with acceptance just in proportion as his readers are too young, *not* to have formed "stand-pat" conclusions, but to be entitled to any conclusions at all on so abstruse a question. The "remarkable" surface resemblances which he points out between Latin and Gaelic are none of them new discoveries, nor have they been overlooked by the investigators who have been working upon the problems of racial and linguistic kinship and influence in and around the Mediterranean basin. Victory in this campaign will be the work, not of brilliant assault by some happy theorist, but of patient trench-digging on the part of trained scholars.

Dr. E. C. Richardson, the librarian of Princeton University, has long been interested in the history of libraries and is now reshaping for a series of volumes various former essays on this subject. The first volume on the "Beginnings of Libraries," already reviewed in these columns, covers the legendary and primitive period to about 3400 B. C. The second now appears (Princeton University Press), and carries down the story into the Christian era. Under the very inclusive title of "Biblical Libraries," which means libraries existing in Biblical places in Biblical times, the author presents an epitomized account of Babylonian, Egyptian, Palestinian, Greek, and Roman libraries. It is hard to see what the library at Pompeii, for instance, has to do with the Bible, and with the chapter on Post-Apostolical Roman Library Buildings the cord is stretched to the limits of elasticity. But instead of quarrelling with an infelicitous title, we would commend the substance of this useful book. The author modestly disclaims completeness of treatment, as he aims rather to give a general survey or first orientation with a sufficient bibliography for those who would pursue the subject further. The introductory chapter, devoted to the definition of a library, reaches the sensible conclusion, not shared by certain specialists, that a library is a collection of books kept for use and that it may appropriately contain public documents and textbooks as well as literary works. This chapter suffers from a diffuseness not found elsewhere in the little volume, which has the clarity and directness of a good encyclopædia article. Evidence from both archæological and literary sources is utilized with a discreet conservatism. Plans and photographs of important remains of library buildings are reproduced from standard works. In the account of Roman libraries there is, strangely, no description of the library of the temple of Augustus in the forum, a building later appropriated for the church of Santa Maria Antiqua. A view of the well-preserved remains would be far more instructive than Cagnat's tentative plan of the Apolline library on the Palatine, the very site of which edifice, let alone details, is extremely uncertain.

Into a court presided over by a "Magistrate," all-wise and all-benevolent, Hugh Carton would have us imagine, in "The Grand Assize" (Doubleday, Page; $1.35 net), come human souls, confessing their shortcomings and accepting judgment. Under these judgments they are directed to return whence they came and win their way back to righteousness along lines by the judge prescribed. Hence we have a series of "trials," each consisting of the "prisoner's" confession, the plea of his "Advocate"—a sort of modernized Guardian Angel—and the judge's analysis of the case, followed by his "sentence." The principal interest lies in these analyses of the moral springs of human action—of very uneven merit—on which depend "the remedies suggested by the judge." To the bar of the court pass the Plutocrat, the Derelict, the Daughter of Joy, Mrs. Grundy, the Cleric, and others, to the number of nineteen; lastly, the Traitor—1915, whose sentence is that "you shall no longer keep the bag, but, till you learn to prefer the lowest place, you shall keep the door. The penalty of seeing your ideal but afar off, and of being debarred from the active business of the King, will meet the case of him who sold his Saviour." The author warns us against analyzing his metaphors too closely. The advice is good.

From the literary point of view, there is a certain sameness in the large output of personal narratives of ex-Siberian prisoners. "The Life Story of a Russian Exile," by Miss Marie Sukloff (Century; $1.50), is no exception to the rule. Its author, a Jewish young lady of evidently forceful character, details with natural enthusiasm her successful murder of Gov. Khvostoff at Tchernigoff, and with proper indignation the unsuccessful attempt to keep her a prisoner at Akatui, in Siberia, thereafter. Her escape compares unfavorably with those of some of her predecessors, in that it seems to have been peculiarly uneventful. After all, one must pay something for one's pastimes, even if they are so natural and desirable as the extermination of unpopular governors.

The one real drawback to Mr. Wayne Whipple's method of treating "The Story-Life of Napoleon" (Century; $2.40 net) is that he presupposes a student for reader, and that the student of Napoleon would find his book unnecessary. From a wide selection of memoirs, histories, and narratives, he chooses paragraphs bearing upon those phases of Napoleon's life of which he treats, and arranges them together in a neat patchwork, under headlines rather suggesting a newspaper "story." But, while the serious student could easily have access to the original works, the casual reader would gather an impression of the Emperor and his like altogether out of proportion. The warrings and lawmakings which made up the greater part of his existence appear, in fact, altogether subordinate to the marryings of himself and his family, the clothes he and his relations wore at his coronation, or the squabbling of his sisters. The life of a great man may be treated either from the intimate or from the public point of view—or from both together. Mr. Whipple falls between the two.

Dr. O. W. Knauth's historical study of the dealings of the Government of the United States with the Trusts, contained in his "The Policy of the United States Towards Industrial Monopoly" (Columbia University), unfortunately ends with the Taft Administration in March, 1913. With the record before him up to that time the reader will readily concur in the judgment of the author that "the government shows no evidence of ever having undertaken seriously a study of the Trust question such as would be necessary for the formation of a definite and enlightened policy. Broadly speaking, Congress has accomplished nothing of note since the passage of the act of 1890; the Executive has been largely impotent; and the Supreme Court, while displaying a growing and finally well-nigh complete grasp of the economic problems involved, has, because of limitations inherent in its nature and functions, been unable to cope in a constructive way with the vast problem that confronts the country" (pp. 230-231). Now, however, we have the Clayton Anti-Trust act, a measure which its friends say assures the "new freedom," and which, according to its critics, is the most elaborate scheme for "interference with business" ever contrived; both agree in regarding it as a most important piece of positive legislation, and there is also a pretty general consensus that its results will largely depend upon the manner of its administration. It is a pity that Dr. Knauth's dissertation was closed before its enactment. One wonders whether at some future time the student who seeks to find the "mind of Congress" on this law as expressed in the debates of this year will be able to trace therein the genesis of the bill as clearly as Dr. Knauth traces the genesis of the Sherman law of 1890, through the debates of those days. Of one thing we may be sure, and that is that it will not be impotence that he will find as the main characteristic of the Executive.

Two books that come to hand at once may conveniently be dealt with as typical cases of the epidemic of *mémoires pour ne servir à rien*. They agree in the absence of literary value and in the minimizing of the demand on the attention or reasoning faculty of the reader. They furnish the material offered also by the lower orders of fiction, but over these they have certain advantages. They are easier to write than fiction because the plot is given, though the play of the inventive faculty may sometimes be felt; and their association with well-known names of real people places them at once in the class of "solid reading," suitable for the morning hours of young girls so well brought up that they do not sit down to Elinor Glyn until the labors of the day are over. The narrative of "The Celebrated Madame Campan," by Violette M. Montagu (Lippincott; $3.75), contains nothing to bring a blush to any cheek. Mme. Campan, lady-in-waiting to Marie Antoinette and governess to the rather difficult young ladies of the Bonaparte family, did her best by all of them. She had a conscientious finger in the affair of the diamond necklace, and she strove to amend the deplorable manners of Pauline Bonaparte. The book is objectionable only as snobbery, a re-telling of well-worn gossip about the great and the notorious. "Pauline Bonaparte and Her Lovers," by Hector Fleischmann (Lane; $3), is, on the other hand, a candid study of nymphomania. Mme. Campan's training left something to be desired in Pauline's manners, and M. Fleischmann expounds patiently her sexual aberrations.

In Major A. E. Wardrop's "Modern Pig-Sticking" (Macmillan; $3.25 net) Americans will find the story of a sport comparatively new to them, but long regarded in India as the finest school for horsemanship. And a strong appeal should make itself felt, when the Anglo-Indian axiom is fully appreciated,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

that, so far as horsemanship goes, polo and pig-sticking complement each other. To be a reputable polo-player in India, the home of both sports, one must also be a good spear after boar. Certainly, from an equestrian point of view, the sport was created for the American rider, whose cow-puncher seat is particularly adapted for following a truculent boar. Indeed, after reading Major Wardrop's helpful remarks on the choice of mount in India, one is tempted to imagine what an Arizona, Texas, or Wyoming cow-pony would do on the same terrain, which is peculiarly like that found in our Western cattle States. The proverbial Western ideal for a good cow-pony is to be "able to turn on a nickel," and it should hold true for the pig-sticker. "Once a boar has been speared," remarks Major Wardrop, "he is an ugly customer, and should be treated with all respect. I do not recommend a novice to go up to a wounded boar at a slow pace." Decidedly not on an Indian mount, for the damage a boar's tushes can inflict is considerable!

Pig-sticking is a popular sport in central and northern India. The habitat of wild pig is invariably the river-beds of India's many and changing rivers, where the scrub affords refuge and food. The principal tent-clubs of India are usually indigenous to the beds of the Jumna and the Ganges, and the great event of the pig-sticking world, the Kadir Cup, takes its name from the habitat: *kadir* meaning a river-bed, though in Guzerat the ubiquitous cactus-hedge offers a doughty "fence to fly," and justifies the comparison of the Indian tent-club with the English hunt. Major Wardrop writes like a sportsman, and his enthusiasm is infectious; but American readers, responding to the lure of the sport, would have been grateful for a glossary. However, the author's twenty-one years in India have found him observant of its peoples and its game, and his book, in addition to full instructions as to the pursuit of this rigorous sport, also contains useful remarks on ethnology and topography not always to be expected of the sportsman. Major Wardrop and his enthusiastic collaborators, Col. J. Vaughan, Lieut.-Col. F. W. Caton Jones, Capt. H. E. Medlicott, and Mr. M. M. Crawford, have produced a suitable successor to the books of Baden-Powell and F. B. Simson, and should find an interested audience in the mounted arms of the United States army, and among all American polo-players. Among the illustrators one is glad to find the work of that lover of horses, Mr. Lionel Edwards.

Not a great deal can be said for W. F. Rawnsley's "Highways and Byways in Lincolnshire" (Dutton; $2 net). This is a route-book, with a map, by a gentleman who has conscientiously motored over the county, and advises others to do likewise. It is characterized by a sober disregard of values, and by such literary quality as the author of the following sentence could be expected to possess: "I once walked with an Undergraduate friend on a winter's day from Uppingham to Boston, about 57 miles, the road led pleasantly at first through Normanton, Exton, and Grimsthorpe Parks, in the last of which the mistletoe was at its best; but when we got off the high ground and came to Dunsby and Dowsby the only pleasure was the walking, and as we reached Billingborough and Horbling, about 30 miles on our way, and had still more than twenty to trudge and in a very uninviting country, snow began to fall, and then the pleasure went out of walking."

For the antiquarian and historian, as well as for the student of English history, there is a wealth of information and research in Sir Laurence Gomme's trilogy on London. His preceding volumes were "The Governance of London" and "The Making of London." In the concluding volume, "London" (Philadelphia: Lippincott; $2 net), the author has endeavored to trace the continuity of the great capital through Celtic times, when it was known under two other names, Lud and Belinus, down through the Roman, Saxon, Danish, and Norman cities to the present day. London, he explains, has always remained separate from the rest of the nation, and the growth of her peculiar privileges as a city-state certainly provides a consistent story. The collapse of communal power, consequent on the passing of feudal government, Sir Laurence regards as the greatest change that London ever experienced. Under the Tudors her share in the great awakening was considerable, and she established the beginnings of the great commercial power she has since enjoyed; and, though this was disruptive, Sir Laurence contends that London steadily maintained her continuity. He is consciously at variance with writers like Seebohm and Coote, who maintain the survival of national and racial Roman civilization, as shown in the continuance of the Roman system of agriculture and agrarian land-holding. Also, on historical grounds, he refutes Palgrave, Kemble, Freeman, Green, and Stubbs, stoutly asserting that they belong to the pre-scientific school: "Because it did not understand archæological evidence, and misused the evidence of tradition so grossly as to make it almost impossible now to make good the claim of tradition to be used at all," Sir Laurence charges that "each authority deals with bits of history, not with the whole of it." His appendices contain extracts from Wren's "Parentalia," and other archæological data, including the recent discovery at Woolwich of the remains of a sixteenth century warship, which is generally thought to be Henry VIII's famous oak dreadnought, "Henry Grace à Dieu," or "Great Harry." The format is so desirable that one regrets objecting to the weight of the book, which could have been obviated by using a thinner paper.

In his "Vital Elements of Preaching" (Macmillan; $1.50 net), Prof. Arthur S. Hoyt, of Auburn Seminary, further considers the subject already discussed in his two previous books, "The Work of Preaching" and "The Preacher." It is a topic which he handles with insight, knowledge, and ability, and the precepts which he enunciates, and illustrates with copious references to the methods, examples, and character of famous prophets and preachers from Amos and Isaiah down to Beecher and Phillips Brooks, are eminently sound. But, for the most part, they are as familiar as they are incontrovertible. Nothing would be gained by a recapitulation of them. The fifteen lectures into which they are divided are, however, notable as an additional evidence of the liberal and more earnest spirit which is now manifesting itself in organized Christianity. The author writes in a purely evangelical tone, and is especially strong in his insistence upon the necessity of a preacher believing and practicing what he preaches. He realizes that without conviction of faith the pulpit must necessarily be ineffectual, especially in these days of intellectual materialism. Perhaps his best chapters are those on The Human Touch, The Ministry of Comfort, A Man's Gospel, and The Preacher and his Age, which are full of true religious philosophy. He enumerates many of the social conditions which increase the difficulties and tend to diminish the influence of the churches, but does not, except by implication, allude to the partial responsibility which rests upon the clergy for their existence. What he says about the value of simplicity of speech and the widest possible intellectual training is excellent. The book is one which, on account of its spiritual breadth and evident sincerity, every student for the ministry might study with profit.

Not only has the "legitimate drama" to complain of the encroachments of the all-conquering "movies"; it begins to look as though literature and science must also anticipate some lively competition. Past are the days when the moving-picture photographer confined his activities to built-up scenes in urban studios. Nowadays, it seems, he thinks little of trips to Togoland and of taking his actors with him. Thereafter it is inevitable, in these literary times, that some of them write books about it, as has Miss M. Gehrts, in "A Camera Actress in the Wilds of Togoland" (Lippincott; illustrated; $3 net). What is more, she has succeeded in making it interesting and probably the quaintest work on exploration that has yet seen the light. The ordinary explorer, that is to say, seldom breaks off his narrative to reflect complacently on his own good looks or to point out that he does not readily make friends with his own sex because he is so popular with the other. Such passages certainly supply the personal note so much desired nowadays, and they do not really detract from the more valuable portions of the book. In their travels after dramatic settings Miss Gehrts and her companions saw everything that was to be seen in what was then the German colony of Togoland, and her observations of German methods of administration and of the ways and manners of the native tribes, Konkombwas, Tschaudjos, and the rest are shrewd and to the point. Especially she succeeds in visualizing for us something of the lives led by the native women and the domestic aspect of the native "home."

George M. Douglas, the author of "Lands Forlorn: The Story of an Expedition to Hearne's Coppermine River" (Putnam; $4 net), a civil engineer, undertook the exploration of the Coppermine River region at the suggestion and expense of a relative, as a kind of relief from the monotony of several years of work in the arid Southwest. He was accompanied by August Sandberg, chemist, metallurgist, and geologist, and by Lionel Dale Douglas, a Canadian naval lieutenant and presumably a relative. The main purpose of the expedition was to test the presence of copper in this region in sufficient quantity to be worked with profit. Briefly expressed, the result may be said to confirm the unfavorable report of Samuel Hearne, sent out under the auspices of the Hudson Bay Company, 1769-1771. The natives had long found here

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

a sufficient supply for their scanty needs in the way of metal, but they found it only in scattered fragments, and the probability of any future discovery of large workable deposits seems slight. The area of possible discovery, according to Dr. Sandberg's survey, stretches from the entrance of Dease Strait westward to Franklin Bay, the eastern half extending southward to the Arctic Circle. The Coppermine River cuts this territory from southwest to northeast near the 116th meridian, west longitude. While the volume thus has little encouragement for the miner, it has many attractions as a book of travel. The photographic work is of high quality and lavishly supplied, an average of at least one good-sized plate to every thirty lines of text. Mr. Douglas does not share Stefánsson's unfavorable opinion of the results of missionary work among the natives, and surmises that such deductions are drawn from cases in which contact with the baser elements of civilization has undermined the work of the missionary. "By their fruits ye shall know them. My own observation of the work carried on by the Oblate Fathers of the Mackenzie River district gives me an unbounded respect for these devoted, self-sacrificing men. . . . The Indians' debt to them is unquestionable; to them they owe all that gives grace, encouragement, and consolation to their lives."

"Poetry's chief function is to reconcile the inner harmony of Man (his Soul, as we call it) with the outer harmony of the Universe" is, if not the best, by no means the worst attempt that has been made to state what poetry does. This attempt is the one purpose that Sir A. Quiller-Couch sets before himself in an essay entitled "Poetry" (Dutton; 50 cents net), in the Fellowship Books series. The essay deserves a considerable vogue; though it demands concentration, it is eminently readable; though it does not accomplish much, so far as it goes, it is sound; though it is not a rhapsody on Poesie, it is written in a style that reflects an ardent illumination. The most notable service performed by the essay is the clear distinction between the "true" and the "false" meanings of "idealize," though the discussion of the "process of Selection which all men are employing" might profitably have been enriched with abundant illustration.

Prof. Andrew Wheeler Phillips, formerly dean of the Yale University Graduate School, died on January 20 at his home in New Haven. Professor Phillips was born in Griswold, Conn., March 14, 1844, the son of Denison and Wealthy Wheeler Phillips. He graduated from Yale in 1873 and from Trinity College, Hartford, in 1875. In 1877 he received the degree of Ph.D., from Yale, and from 1877 to 1881 he was a tutor there. From 1881 to 1891 he was assistant professor of mathematics, and from 1891 to 1911, professor. Professor Phillips was dean of the Graduate School from 1895 to 1911. He was president of the trustees of Hotchkiss School, Lakeville, Conn., and a trustee of the Hopkins Grammar School at New Haven. Professor Phillips was the editor of the Connecticut Almanac, twelve numbers, 1882-93, and among the books which he wrote jointly with others are "Transcendental Curves," "Graphic Algebra," "The Elements of Geometry," "Trigonometry and Tables," and "The Orbit of Swift's Comet."

Science

GALILEO IN ENGLISH.

Dialogues Concerning Two New Sciences. By Galileo Galilei. Translated by Henry Crew and Alfonso De Salvio, with an Introduction by Antonio Favaro. New York: The Macmillan Co. $2 net.

"To give us the Science of Motion, God and Nature have joined hands and created the intellect of Galileo." So exclaimed Fra Paolo Sarpi; and the great philosopher himself was quite aware of the value of this work, for he says in a letter to his friend, Diodati, that these new sciences are "the most important of all my studies, and superior to everything else of mine hitherto published." The best years of his life were those in which the foundations of this great work were laid, the eighteen years at Padua; and most fittingly Padua's present professor of physics, Antonio Favaro, contributes a brief introduction to this volume, which is historically very interesting and authoritative. To American readers Professor Favaro is best known as editor for many years past of the national edition of Galileo's works, recently brought to completion by the Italian Government in twenty splendid volumes.

But for the initiative of Professor Crew and his colleagues, who very rightly share the opinion of Franklin as expressed in the Philosophical Transactions nearly a century and a half ago, "that it has been of late too much the mode to slight the learning of the ancients," English readers must have had to wait many years longer for the opportunity to hear competently in their own language what Galileo himself has to say—an anomaly all the more striking when one recalls that English has in recent years been enriched by Thompson's version of Huygens's "Light," Sir Thomas Heath's translations of Archimedes and other Greek philosophers, and Motte's setting of the Principia in the language of its original conception.

Historically, it is worth noting that, while Salusbury had done Galileo into English within twenty-five years after his death, nearly the whole edition was destroyed in the great London fire of 1666; indeed, America possesses no copy of the work, and even the one in the British Museum is imperfect. The only other translation is that of Weston (1730), now scarce and costly, as well as ambiguous and unintelligible in parts from too great literalness. The "Discorsi e Dimostrazioni Matematiche, Intorno à due Nuoue Scienze Attenenti alla Mecanica & i Movimenti Locali" relates practically all to dynamics which in various forms, as ballistics, acoustics, and astronomy, consumed in the main Galileo's lifetime of effort. The present translation follows essentially the Elzevir edition of 1638; and while philosopher, astronomer, and historian will find his other volumes replete with interest, this is the one that is most intimately concerned with physics and engineering.

Galileo's five months of enforced residence at Siena had enabled him to give definite shape to the researches that formed the basis of the Discorsi, and the question of publication proved to be by no means a simple one. Prague and Vienna were at first considered; but the chance arrival of Louis Elzevir in Italy in 1636, and his meeting with Galileo at Arcetri through their mutual friend, Micanzio, led Galileo to entrust his precious papers to this representative of the famous Dutch house, who actually took the manuscript home with him.

The so-called dialogues are carried on through a succession of chapters, or Four Days, as they are styled, with Salviati, Sagredo, and Simplicio as interlocutors. The first new science of the First Day treats of the resistance which solid bodies offer to fracture; the Second Day's dialogue concerns the cause of cohesion. The other new science is that of motion, discussing on the Third Day uniform motion and uniformly accelerated motion, while violent motions and the trajectories of projectiles are reserved for the Fourth Day. Historically it is interesting to note that a Fifth Day was intended by Galileo to deal with the force of percussion and the use of the catenary; but when the Holy See had already condemned all publication whatsoever by Galileo, it is not astonishing that the Elzevirs in far-away Leyden put the work to press without waiting for this final and unfinished chapter. Its quaint dedication to the Count of Noailles, Galileo's former pupil at Padua, and then Ambassador of France at Rome, deserves more than passing comment, and no less the prefatory note of "Publisher to Reader," which confides to expectant purchasers what a truly great scientist their author was.

To engineers, physicists, and ordnance experts in England and America Professor Crew's translation will especially appeal. So keen are the discussions and so suitably worded, with care to translate literally and yet with clarity and entire modernness of expression, it is a conscientious piece of work exceptionally well done, and deserves a hearty welcome. Salviati's introduction of the First Day's discussion is so appropriate that it might almost have been written in our present unhappily stressful era: "SALV. The constant activity which you Venetians display in your famous arsenal suggests to the studious mind a large field for investigation." And the Fourth Day is entirely given over to projectiles and their motion, going into the subject very philosophically and as deeply as the mathematics of his day would admit. Herein Galileo develops among other things a very near approach to Newton's second law of motion and shows great keenness in his consideration of the head-on resistance of the air. The speed of a powder-driven ball seemed to Galileo so tremendous that he often alludes to it as supernatural. Also he introduces for the first time many conceptions novel in natural philosophy, and develops fundamental principles in the theory of the resistance of armor.

Physicists and astronomers will find the Third Day the most interesting, because it

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

treats of all phases of motion or change of position, making, as Galileo himself says, "a very new science dealing with a very ancient subject." With neither clock nor chronoscope, Galileo proceeds to measure the acceleration of gravity, at first estimating deviations no greater than "one-tenth of a pulse-beat"; and later, "For the measurement of time we employed a large vessel of water placed in an elevated position; to the bottom of this vessel was soldered a pipe of small diameter giving a thin jet of water, which we collected in a small glass during the time of each descent, whether for the whole length of the channel or for a part of its length; the water thus collected was weighed, after each descent, on a very accurate balance; the differences and ratios of these weights gave us the differences and ratios of the times, and this with such accuracy that, although the operation was repeated many, many times, there was no appreciable discrepancy in the results" (p. 179). Here it is that the propositions underlying Newton's laws of motion were first developed, and geometric demonstrations given which provided the foundations of the earlier physical astronomy. Particularly is the strength of materials insisted on with regard to mechanics and architecture, as well as engineering. Prevalent opinion, seemingly right, is often cited; and thereupon Galileo proceeds to point out that it is absolutely wrong, and he shows directly and exactly just why. Simplicius is ever on hand with the erroneous statement, and when he gets into a tight place, Salviati sometimes, and sometimes Sagredo, appears in the guise of a "good angel" to help him through. Then Simplicius is characteristically admonished, "You see how readily one falls into error, and what caution and circumspection are required to avoid it." So their subjects of imaginary conversation are "freely chosen and not forced on us, a matter vastly different from dealing with dead books which give rise to many doubts but remove none."

The mathematician will rejoice to find here the basic conceptions of the infinitesimal calculus; here is the first recorded attempt to ascertain the velocity of light, when its speed was commonly believed to be infinite; and there are pleasing and profitable excursions into the fields of the motion of pendulums and the theory of music. Chladni and his classic plates are long anticipated: noting the common experiment of friction of the finger-tip on the rim of a glass of water:

SALV. This is a beautiful experiment, enabling us to distinguish individually the waves . . . which spread through the air, bringing to the tympanum of the ear a stimulus which the mind translates into sound. But, since these waves in the water . . . are always forming and disappearing, would it not be a fine thing if one had the ability to produce waves which would persist for a long while, even months and years, so as to easily measure and count them?

SAGR. Such an invention would, I assure you, command my admiration.

SALV. The device is one which I hit upon by accident. . . . As I was scraping a brass plate with a sharp iron chisel, in order to remove some spots from it, and was running the chisel rather rapidly over it, I once or twice, during many strokes, heard the plate emit a rather strong and clear whistling sound. On looking at the plate more carefully, I noticed a long row of fine streaks parallel and equidistant from one another. Scraping with the chisel over and over again, I noticed that it was only when the plate emitted this hissing noise that any marks were left upon it. When the scraping was not accompanied by this sibilant note there was not the least trace of such marks. Repeating the trick several times, and making the stroke, now with greater now with less speed, the whistling followed, with a pitch which was correspondingly higher and lower. I noted, also, that the marks made when the tones were higher were closer together; but when the tones were deeper, they were farther apart (101-2).

We do not need to quote more of this exceptional book. It is embellished with an excellent likeness of Galileo reproduced from Subterman's portrait (*circa* 1640, and now in the Galleria de' Pitti at Florence). The general typographic style is in quasi-imitation of the earlier printing, with heavy type and wide margins, and the few quaint archaic illustrations are faithfully reproduced.

The equipment of the Smithsonian Astrophysical Observatory at Washington embraces an enclosure of about 16,000 square feet, containing five small frame buildings used for observing and computing purposes, three movable frame shelters covering several out-of-door pieces of apparatus, and also one small brick building containing a storage battery and electrical distribution apparatus. Also at Mount Wilson, California, upon a leased plot of ground 100 feet square, are situated a one-story cement observing structure, designed especially for solar-constant measurements, and also a little frame cottage, 21 feet by 25 feet, for observers' quarters. Upon the observing shelter at Mount Wilson there is a tower 40 feet high above the 12-foot piers which had been prepared in the original construction of the building. This tower has been equipped with an improvised tower telescope for use when observing (with the spectrobolometer) the distribution of radiation over the sun's disk. A coöperating expedition from the United States Weather Bureau made ascents of captive and free balloons in order to determine the temperature, pressure, and humidity at great elevations. Advantage was taken of the opportunity to send up special pyrheliometers for measuring solar radiation at great altitudes. Five balloon pyrheliometers were sent up from Santa Catalina Island. All were recovered, with readable records. One instrument unfortunately lay in a field about six weeks before recovery, and parts of its record referring to the higher elevations were obliterated, but it yielded the best results of any up to about 8,000 metres. Two of the instruments unfortunately were shaded by cirrus clouds until after the mercury froze in their thermometers. The highest elevation at which a radiation record was obtained was about 14,000 metres, or nearly 45,000 feet, or nine miles. No results indicating values of solar radiation exceeding the solar constant value (1.93 calories) appear to be obtainable by pyrheliometric measurements at any elevation, however high. Progress has been made in the measurement of the effects produced by atmospheric water vapor on solar and terrestrial radiation. New apparatus for measuring sky radiation has been devised and perfected. By means of the tower telescope the variability of the sun has been independently confirmed, for it appears that changes of the distribution of radiation over the sun's disk occur in correlation with the changes of the sun's total radiation. Dr. C. G. Abbot, Director of the Astrophysical Observatory, conducts this research with the assistance of Mr. F. E. Fowle.

Prof. Louis Lindsay Dyche, zoölogist and explorer, who died on January 20, was born in Berkeley Springs, W. Va., March 20, 1857, the son of Alexander and Mary Dyche. He had hunted all over North and South America and had gathered one of the most valuable collections of mammals in the United States, which is now at the University of Kansas and of which he was curator. In 1884 he graduated from the University of Kansas, and he had also received the degrees of A.M. and M.S. from that institution. He was assistant professor of zoölogy there in 1885-6, and from 1886 to 1890 he was professor of comparative anatomy. From 1890 to 1900 he was professor of zoölogy and curator of birds and mammals. In 1909 Professor Dyche was State Game and Fish Warden of Kansas. He had travelled all over Alaska, Greenland, and the Arctic regions, and had written extensively on ichthyology and similar subjects.

Drama

THE ARMADA.

Philip, the King, and Other Poems. By John Masefield. The Macmillan Co. $1.25 net.

This one-act drama, "Philip, the King," cannot fail to increase the already great reputation of John Masefield as a poetic dramatist. Distinguished by many of the familiar characteristics of his talent, his nimble fancy, keen observation, and power of realistic expression, it reveals a notable sense of literary restraint and a remarkable gift of imaginative analysis of character and genuine, if as yet imperfectly developed, dramatic instinct. In respect of structure, the piece is a dramatic poem rather than a play, but with an intellectual emotional actor of the type of the late Sir Henry Irving to interpret the central character of the King, it might be made highly effective on the stage.

Whether Philip is depicted with historical accuracy matters little. As Mr. Masefield has limned him he is a fascinating figure of weary, harassed, cynical but unyielding despotism. Unscrupulous, subtle, and fanatical in all that pertains to his state and purpose, he is tenderly human in his love for his daughter, and, in all externals, essentially kingly. When the curtain rises he is awaiting, with agonized anxiety, news of the great Armada, destined, as he believes, to make England a Spanish province. To the dispatch of that expedition he has devoted the energies, the tyrannies, the intrigues, the treacheries, and the crimes of seventeen exhausting years. Now, in superb

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

prose, he offers to heaven the petitions soon severally to be denied. Thereafter the play is written mostly in iambic rhymed verse. In a charming scene, full of paternal tenderness, he strives to allay the fears of the princess, who has had a vision in which the spirit of Spain's committed wrongs has prophesied disaster. He soothes her with a rapid review of the difficulties and dangers he had overcome before his mighty enterprise came to perfection. Then in a passage of spirited narration she describes the marshalling of the Armada and its triumphant progress seaward. The whole marine pageant is sketched with stirring pictorial realism. As she ceases, Philip again muses in prayerful soliloquy, recalling the vast action of which he has been the mainspring, and asking as special boon the return in safety of his favorite, De Leyva. Then he falls asleep, and in dream, like Richard III, is accosted by the spirits of his and Spain's victims: the Indians whom he had enslaved and tortured; Don John, of Austria, his half-brother, whom he had used and poisoned; Escovedo, whom he had caused to be assassinated, all prophesying disaster. He defends himself boldly, pleading the necessities of statecraft as sufficient excuse for all that he had done. Then comes Santa Cruz, his great admiral, reproaching him for his folly in entrusting the chief command to feeble and incompetent leaders, and striving to tell him how even now disaster may be avoided. But his voice is drowned by the cries of revengeful spirits, and as he fades away despairing, De Leyva appears, announcing his own death, and offering comfort in the assurance of his undying affection. This whole episode is full of poetic imagination and dramatic force.

Philip wakes to hear that an English prisoner is at hand with news of victory. The captive, a fisherman, tells, in simple prose, of the Armada's safe passage up the British Channel and arrival at Calais, and presently, the news having spread, great crowds are heard outside the palace shouting for the King, and acclaiming his glory and that of Spain. The princess, at the window, ecstatically describes the inspiring scenes below. Still the King doubts, until assured by a magnificent pæan of triumph, in verse of Scriptural dignity, sung by assembled monks. Seldom has the note of passionate exultation been more surely struck. Swift on this climax follows the catastrophe. As the ragged remnants of Recalde's hosts approach, chanting a dirge of defeat and disgrace, mutterings of popular wrath succeed the chorus of jubilation. It is a captain who brings to the King the fatal message, "Philip, your navy is beneath the waves." In saga-like verse, simple and swift—closely following the historic records—he tells of the descent of Drake's fire-ships upon the huddled fleet in Calais roads, the ensuing panic, the flight northward, the ceaseless worrying of the unwieldy galleons by the handy British privateers, the scattering by tempest of the broken squadrons upon strange, inhospitable shores, long after strewn with thousands of white dead, and all the perfect ruin of Spain's proudest hopes. He closes thus:

I, like a ghost returning from the grave,
Come from a stricken ship to tell the news
Of Spanish honor which we could not save,
Nor win again, or even die to lose;
And since God's hidden wisdom loves to bruise
Those whom he loves, we, trembling in despair,
Will watch our griefs to see God's finger there,
And make his will our solace and excuse.

The King, bent but unbroken, responds in the same fatalistic spirit:

I can still
Set out another fleet against that land.
Nor do I think it ill
If all the running water takes its course
While there are unspent fountains at the source.

But he proclaims a fast, and kneels, as the curtain falls, to a roll of muffled drums. This synopsis, of course, is meant to suggest the character rather than the poetic quality of the piece. The limitations of space forbid the free quotation which alone could do justice to the excellence of the verse. It is admirable alike in the copiousness of the imagination and the comprehensive simplicity with which it is expressed. The present volume also contains "The Wanderer," "The River," "Watching by a Sick Bed," and the exquisite "August, 1914"; but none of these is new. Each of them affords, for the connoisseur, an interesting illustration of Mr. Masefield's power and its steady growth.

SPECIES IN DRAMA.

The Changing Drama. By Archibald Henderson. New York: Henry Holt & Co. $1.50 net.

Ten chapters in this book handle ten aspects of the "Changing Drama." The attempts in chapter iii to elucidate drama by its supposed correspondence with biology and evolution are of meagre worth and interest. The likeness of drama to biology is narrow and definite; there are kinds, a succession of kinds, in drama, and these varieties, viewed as merchandise, as bidders for patronage, do compete, perish, and survive. But species of drama have no other basis in fact than species of rugs, species of cannon-balls, or species of motor-cars; and criticism will benefit as little by the first phrase as industry or economic science by the second. Biology can serve criticism only by supplying it here and there with a brief, illuminative comparison; mineralogy or astronomy or seamanship will do as much.

In chapter iv, "new forms" are catalogued, with sufficient accuracy but with scant novelty, as the "drama of immediate actuality," "the drama of intellectual content," and the "social drama." In chapter v, naturalism, aided by the "intimate theatre," is made the generator of the "static drama," which begets other species, the "drama of discussion," traceable back through Shaw to Ibsen, and the "drama of suggestion," incarnated in Maeterlinck. The appetite for species is inappeasable. If Maeterlinck were to write a play in which caterpillars and mosquitoes were the protagonists, Mr. Henderson would doubtless proclaim the arrival of "entomological drama," and if Mr. Shaw should throw off a playlet in which two speakers, walking on tight-ropes, discussed the sanity of publishers, the entry "funambulist drama" would find its way with exhilarating swiftness into Mr. Henderson's note-book.

In his handling of tendencies, indeed, Mr. Henderson though by no means unintelligent, is wholly uncritical. Not recognizing any permanent demands to which dramatic movements must adapt themselves, he cannot discriminate between innovations which meet old ends by new means, and hence may be lasting, and innovations which fail to meet the old ends, and are, accordingly, foredoomed to evanescence. Shall we ask Mr. Henderson how a drama is to dispense with action or emotion, without providing substitutes, and yet remain universal, that is, keep its hold upon a class of theatre-goers for whom emotion and action have hitherto served as the irreplaceable and indispensable appeals? Such a question, in our critic's eyes, it is a condescension to answer and almost a degradation to put; but, if pressed, he will specify a feeling which, he thinks, is prepared to take over the responsibility for the effects formerly induced by the whole varied body of emotional stimuli. The reader will learn with surprise the name of this all-replacing, all-achieving sentiment; it is social fellowship, the humanitarian instinct, the sympathy for injured multitudes.

Mr. Henderson does not reject dramas of action and emotion, but in the attempt to provide for their opposites, he falls back upon the broadest and most elementary, but not perhaps the least correct or serviceable, definition of a play: "A play is any representation of human life by human interpreters on a stage in a theatre before a representative audience." Then he defines drama as one kind of play—a play "with a distinctive plot involving incidents actively participated in by the characters." In other words, the static experiments and the symposia and their kind are to be consoled for their banishment from the precincts of drama by their admission into the looser category of plays.

Mr. Henderson's treatment of language in recent drama is lucid and compact. He is sane and elevated in his protest against that contemporary theory which makes the playhouse not merely the vessel or receptacle of the drama, but its mould. He is convincing, though not original, in his criticism of the precision of the "conflict" formula. He would do well, in a second edition, to omit his attempt to convict Mr. Archer of want of clear-headedness: first, because the undertaking is hopeless; secondly, because it is impolitic in Mr. Henderson to remind his readers of the demand in criticism for such a quality.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"THE FALLEN IDOL."

A great musician incapacitated is taken for the second time this season as the central theme of a drama. Otis Skinner, in "The Silent Voice," attempted to give life to a poor play, and in the case of "The Fallen Idol," by Guy Bolton, which is to be seen at the Comedy Theatre, a subject that might have been developed powerfully is so overlaid with smartness and theatrics as to appear futile. Victor Valdecini, a famous pianist, is the victim of creeping paralysis, presumably as the result of overmuch loving in the past. Married to a young American wife, whose yearning for a child he has thwarted, he realizes too late that he has lost her love. His difficulty is complicated by the sudden appearance of a former mistress, who has borne him a son. How the knowledge of this is kept from the wife by the generosity of the man she loves, how she herself discovers it and in turn shows a generous character by forgiving, and renouncing her love, and how the skein is untangled by the suicide of her husband, form the substance of this not very inspiring performance. Miss Janet Beecher's charm was not enough to give the impression of strength to her poor rôle, and though Albert Bruning was well picked for the part of the musician, by the nature of the case he was bound to appear theatrical. F.

"THE CRITIC."

Last week we had occasion to speak regretfully of an eighteen-year-old play as already old-fashioned. This week there has been brought to the boards of the Princess Theatre a piece that is 135 years old and is as fresh to-day as on the night when it was first produced at Drury Lane Theatre on October 30, 1779—but then the author is Richard Brinsley Sheridan. Since the virtual passing of stock companies, "The Critic" is not revived as often as its merits and its timeliness deserve. Lester Wallack used to revive it, and John Drew played Puff at Daly's years ago, but revivals of the play are few and far between, and it is never presented as Sheridan wrote it. Much of the gagging is nearly as old as the play itself and time has lent to it such sanction and dignity that we should dispense with it as unwillingly as we should with the time-honored gag in "She Stoops to Conquer":

> Constantia Neville
> May go to the devil

—but the final tableau in the present production, in which is introduced a ludicrous little Bronx River, is somewhat trying to one's sense of reverence.

On the whole, however, Mr. Sheridan would probably have been well pleased with the production staged by B. Iden Payne at the Princess; certainly he would have been "vastly entertained," and if he knew the actors and actresses of to-day, not to mention the playwrights and play producers and the gossip of Broadway, he could not but be gratified at the contemporaneous interest of his farce. Sir Fretful Plagiary hesitates to send the product of his brain to the manager of Drury Lane, who was Sheridan himself, because "it is not always so safe to leave a play in the hands of those who write themselves," and he fears lest "he might take out some of the best things in my tragedy and put them into his own comedy." The lines have a familiar ring, and so does the quarrel for the centre stage (though this is not indicated in the stage directions of the printed editions) between Tilburina and the Governor, and the ruthless slashing of the luckless playwright's lines by the company.

One may take exception to Mr. Payne's production on the ground that he has been somewhat too drastic in bringing it up to date. The farce itself is sufficiently modern to need no modernizing, and we prefer to see the characters played in the manner of the period. On this score Mr. Payne's own performance of Puff is open to criticism. In the first act he is too much the finished product, instead of the brilliant foreshadowing of the press agent of to-day, and in the tragedy scenes only his costume reminds us that he has stepped out of the eighteenth century. Dallas Anderson is an effeminate rather than a dilettante Dangle, and Wallis Clark plays Sneer in the manner of Scrooge. Mario Majoroni, as Sir Fretful, misses the delicacy of the rôle, and for the same reason that Mr. Payne's Puff is not wholly satisfactory—it is not true to the period. Miss Emilie Polini's Tilburina is amusing, granted the modern rendering. Interpretations of genuine cleverness are the Confidante of Miss Saxon Morland and the Sir Walter Raleigh of Whitford Kane.

S. W.

It would have been a pity if the four one-act plays by J. M. Barrie had not been printed in the form in which they now appear in his "Half Hours" (Scribner; $1.25 net). They are "Pantaloon," "The Twelve-Pound Look," "The Will," and "Rosalind." The first three are familiar here in stage representation, but only the reader, with the author's accompanying notes of introduction, explanation, and comment before him, can appreciate them at their full value. The preface to "Pantaloon," and the running directions, contain more of Barrie's whimsical, tender, and fresh imagination, and deft touches of characterization than all the dialogue, and they create a mood and atmosphere in which the action of the little fable acquires a new significance. Both the humor and the pathos have a subtle delicacy, which only the rarest pantomimic art could suggest in the playhouse. For the sympathetic reader they make a potent and delightful appeal. In a similar way, though in lesser degree, the notes to "Rosalind" have a wonderful supplementary value. For one thing, they clearly identify the model after which the heroine of the comedietta—it is a trifle too fantastic for comedy—was fashioned. She is an actress, "of forty and a bittock," who retires to a remote village where, unknown, she may lay aside the panoply of youth and "wallow," as she says, in the indulgence of middle age. There she is discovered by a youth, of twenty-three, who had made love to her, when arrayed in all the artful bravery of feminine disguise, and now mistakes her for the mother of the adored one, only to woo her, in her own proper person, after disillusion. The model, undoubtedly, was Ellen Terry, who is depicted with vital realism. And she alone, of living actresses, might once have endowed the part with full illusion. Sir James is not the first observer to discern in her the ideal Rosalind—a character from which an envious fate debarred her. The other two plays stand less in need of illuminating commentary. Their full message of mingled humor and satire is born upon the surface. "The Will," for all its lightness of touch, its characteristic humor, and its vein of pathos, leaves behind it a flavor of tragic cynicism, all the more bitter because it is an extract from the truth of nature. In "The Twelve-Pound Look," also, the playful humor is edged with searching satire. But both are admirable specimens of Barrie at his best. This little volume is a welcome addition to the modern stage library and a convincing witness of the efficacy and artistic possibilities of the one-act play in the hands of a master.

Gaston Armand de Caillavet, the dramatist, died in Paris on January 13. M. de Caillavet was born in 1870, and was known professionally as Armand de Caillavet. He was a Chevalier of the Legion of Honor, and a Commissioner of the Society of Dramatic Authors. His best-known plays are "Colombine," "Noblesse Oblige," and "The Lily." From 1900 until 1907 he collaborated with Robert de Flers, one of their best known dramas being "The Labors of Hercules."

Music

A NAPOLEONIC OPERA.

To most music-lovers, contemporary Italian opera means the works of Mascagni and Leoncavallo, who are represented by "Cavalleria Rusticana" and "I Pagliacci"; and Puccini, who has been more fortunate in contributing to the current repertory three operas—"La Bohême," "Tosca," and "Madama Butterfly," besides two others that have not entirely disappeared: "Manon Lescaut" and "The Girl of the Golden West." Besides these three men there are, of course, a number of aspirants to stage honors and emoluments. Of these, the most conspicuous are Ermanno Wolf-Ferrari and Umberto Giordano. The first-named, after being neglected for some time, except as the composer of an oratorio, suddenly blossomed into fame—particularly on this side of the Atlantic—as the writer of "Le Donne Curiose," "Il Segreto di Susanna," and "I Giojelli della Madonna." The vogue of these operas was, however, surprisingly short; the public did not take them to heart, partly because there is little melodic charm in them, and partly because their plots and dialogue are better suited to acting alone than with music.

The second of the two men, Giordano, whose latest opera, "Mme. Sans Gêne," had its first performance on any stage at the Metropolitan last Monday, has not enjoyed better luck, and for similar reasons. He began his public career with an opera, "Mala Vita," which had one of the repulsive subjects favored for a time by the "Young Italian" school. Much more successful, for a time, was his "Andrea Chénier." Then came "Fedora," based on Sardou's play, and "Siberia," which, when produced by Oscar Hammerstein, made a good impression by its realistic pictures of Arctic desolation and life, and its skilful use of Russian folkmusic. In his new opera, Giordano has returned to Sardou, possibly because his colleague, Puccini, owes his biggest successes in part to his habit of selecting popular plays as basis

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

for his operas. It is alleged that Verdi suggested "Mme. Sans Gêne" to him as a good subject, but that he hesitated because of the incongruity of bringing forward the unmusical Napoleon as a singer. Verdi then, so an Italian journalist avers, suggested that, while one could not conceive of Napoleon coming up to the footlights to sing a love song, he might be accommodated with a sort of dramatic recitative. At any rate, when Giordano, three years ago, saw Sardou's play in Paris, he decided to try his luck with it.

As a play, "Mme. Sans Gêne" is familiar to American audiences, having been acted in many of our cities by Ellen Terry (with Henry Irving as Napoleon), Réjane, Katharyn Kidder, and others. The plot is an incident in the French Revolution. The woman who, because of her unconventional manners, is called Mme. Sans Gêne is an Alsatian, Caterina Hübscher, who runs a laundry in Paris. One of her customers is a young officer, named Napoleon, who is unable to pay his bill. He does not, however, appear on the stage before the third act. In the first act, Caterina, after her laundresses have left, hears a shot, the door opens, and in comes the Austrian, Count Neipperg, wounded, and begging for shelter against his pursuers. She hides him in her bedroom, where he is found, a moment later, by one of the pursuers, her lover, Lefebvre, who, however, having convinced himself that there is no cause for jealousy, leaves him alone. The second act plays nineteen years later. Caterina is now a Countess, having married Lefebvre, who has become one of Napoleon's favorite generals. Her manners, however, are still those of a washerwoman, a scandal in court, wherefore the Emperor urges her husband to divorce her. He refuses to do so; whereupon Napoleon sends for her. She succeeds in convincing him that, whatever her manners may be, she is a fine type of womanhood, and finally is instrumental in showing him that his suspicions regarding an intrigue between the Empress and Count Neipperg are groundless.

Signor Giordano is reported to have said that his chief artistic aim in setting this libretto to music was to give a good musical characterization of Napoleon. This he has failed to do. There is nothing in the strains assigned to him that particularly suggests his personality. Apart from this, there is considerable local color in the score, so far as it can be obtained by quoting revolutionary tunes, such as "La Carmagnole," "Ça Ira," and the "Marseillaise," of which effective use is made. It cannot be said that the composer's own melodies reveal any originality or allurement, but there is an occasional page or two of dainty or crass orchestration which serves its purpose in keeping the attention from flagging. The first act is musically by far the best; after it, there is a steady decrease in interest, so that the burden has to be borne chiefly by Sardou's comedy and by the performers. Among these, Geraldine Farrar particularly distinguished herself, winning much applause for this latest addition to her operatic portrait gallery. Honors were shared with her by Giovanni Martinelli as Lefebvre, Pasquale Amato as Napoleon, and Arturo Toscanini, who had evidently expended much time and trouble in rehearsing this opera, which presented many difficulties. That it was worth while to expend all this time and trouble on it, it would be rash to affirm.

HENRY T. FINCK.

The seventeen-year-old Erich Korngold, whose instrumental works have aroused so much wonder and admiration, has just completed his first opera. It is entitled "The Ring of Polycrates."

By order of the Prussian Minister of Education a forty-page song book for German soldiers has been printed for distribution in the army. Its title is "Das Kriegsliederbuch für das deutsche Heer 1914." The collection was made by Prof. Max Friedländer, the chief authority on the history of the Lied. Another recent publication is "Deutsche Soldatenlieder," with guitar accompaniment. Dr. Leopold Schmidt, in reviewing these collections for the Berlin *Tageblatt*, sneers with good reason at the British soldiers for their addiction to the vulgar tune of "Tipperary." The French, too, he boasts, have nothing to equal the German soldier songs, while "the Russian soldiers sing only melancholy folk-songs." He does not add that these melancholy Russian folk-songs are quite as musical as anything ever produced in Germany. The fact that the German soldiers sing such songs as are included in the collections referred to proves, according to Dr. Schmidt, that they are not "barbarians." How about the Russians and the French—are they barbarians? And are the English barbarians, because they sing "Tipperary"? Musically, yes. Dr. Schmidt refers to the fact that already in the old Roman days Tacitus described the Germans as singing before and during a battle. But those soldiers surely *were* barbarians. Not all music hath charms to soothe the savage breast.

It is very seldom nowadays that we have the opportunity of welcoming a really new "subject" for book-making. Mr. William Gorham Rice, in his "Carillons of Belgium and Holland" (Lane; $1.50 net) has certainly found one, and has put it to useful and interesting purpose. That tower-music has always been confined almost exclusively to the Low Countries, whose temperament, as Mr. Rice points out, both popular and topographical, translates it with curious fidelity, is, of course, the reason why so little is even today known of it elsewhere. Yet among all the thousands of modern visitors who have delighted in the clear tones of the belfries at Bruges or Malines, it is curious that so few have felt the need of pursuing their investigations farther. Mr. Rice's book is probably intended only as an introduction to the study of the carillon. It is, nevertheless, sufficiently exhaustive, presenting a clear perspective of tower-music, its history, its most famous exponents, and their methods from the early middle ages to our own times. Unhappily, even since the book was written, the German invasion has done bitter work upon the bell-towers of Belgium—notably at Malines, hitherto the most perfect of any, and the accepted headquarters of the art. So far as Mr. Rice's book is concerned, the war serves only to increase its value and lend poignancy to its interest.

Art

Helen A. Dickinson's "German Masters of Art" (Stokes; $5 net), treats German painting from the earliest times to the middle of the sixteenth century. It is the first time, we believe, that the field has been covered in English, and though the work is cast in popular form, without bibliography or citation of sources, it bears evidence of careful first-hand study. The chapters are well proportioned, such giants as Dürer, Grünewald, and Holbein being more thoroughly treated. In general it seems to us that insufficient admission is made of Italian influence. It is specific in most of the masters of the early Nüremburg school, for example. The most interesting figure to one unfamiliar with the field is Meister Francke, of Hamburg, who early in the fifteenth century succeeded in being a sort of Northern Sassetta. In general the early work compares ill in quality with that of Flanders or France, but it has its own charm in sincerity and in great inventiveness. These Germans never settled comfortably down to formulas, but thought out the old themes and scenes, making them ever novel. Except at the great moment just before the darkness, no great art emerged, but a great deal that was tender and highly picturesque was produced. The art gives the impression of humility, of thinking its own thoughts, while deferring to the impressive examples of Flanders and Italy. It is hard to realize that this homely, delightful art grew on the same soil that for the past twenty years has been indulging a gloomy titanism. Probably a sensitive critic might read in this book the beginnings of evangelical Protestantism, just as a prophetic soul might have foreseen what has happened in Belgium in the calculated lustfulness and truculence of recent German painting and sculpture. It is well to go back in this sympathetic chronicle of primitive German art, to the authentic and amiable tradition of the race. For opening up to English-speaking readers an unfamiliar and delightful field Mrs. Dickinson deserves gratitude. Her book is well conceived and excellently printed. It contains, besides four color plates, one hundred and ten cuts, many from originals quite inaccessible to the general public.

We have received the handsome album, "Sword Guards and Other Sword Ornaments in Old Japan," the Furukawa collection, privately printed in Tokio for T. Furukawa. It is a large folio, bound in brocade, with outside cover. The illustrations are in collotype of excellent execution, and include 260 sword guards, 198 knife handles, 126 buttons (menuki), and 111 hilt caps and ferrules. The arrangement by schools and attributions are by Mr. Wada, who collected many of the pieces. There is a very full representation of types. Three straight swords with copper guards, from dolmen tombs, and fourteen examples of swordsmith and armorer work of Ashikaga period or earlier, are rare items. When we come to the seventeenth century and the classic schools, the collection is richest in the Shoami and Umetada schools. At the very end, a sculptured peony, by Natsuo, commands attention. So considerable a repertory of representative and fine examples makes the catalogue very valuable to collectors and museums. This is particularly so by reason of

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the abundant representation of smaller sword ornaments. Here the Gotō school, which is scantily represented among the guards, is fully illustrated. Catalogues like this and that of the Naunton collection serve a most useful purpose of information and comparison. There still seems to be room for smaller publications, which, not competing in the archæological fields with such stately catalogues, should especially emphasize decorative originality and quality.

Finance

A REVERSAL OF CONDITIONS.

The two phenomena of the day, which aroused last autumn more acute misgivings than any others, were the wholly abnormal movement of foreign exchange against New York, and the collapse of our export trade. It was therefore logical that the violent decline in sterling to the gold-import level, at the opening of the year, should have started a rising wave of financial confidence in Wall Street, and that last week's figures, on the reversal of conditions in our foreign trade, should have brought the feeling of reassurance to a head.

This foreign trade report for December was remarkable enough. Whereas exports had run short of 1913 in August by $77,000,000, and even in November by $39,000,000, those of December rose $13,000,000 over the preceding year. They had, in fact, been equalled in only four previous months of the country's history; the $131,800,000 excess of exports over imports had been matched only in one other month, October of 1913, and had never been equalled in December. Subsequent separate figures of last month's agricultural exports threw some interesting light on these results.

Shipments of breadstuffs in December increased no less than $44,000,000 over 1913; which would mean, if that business were left out of reckoning, that the month's total exports, instead of increasing $13,000,000 over the year before, would have decreased $31,000,000. But this does not alter the general showing of improvements; for in November our exports outside of breadstuffs decreased $69,700,000 from the year before, and in August $78,400,000. Considering that in December, 1913, Germany took $33,000,000 of our exported merchandise, last month's figures are astonishing. Not least remarkable was the fact that cotton exports very nearly matched the total of the previous December, and that wheat exports rose 8,400,000 bushels above the previous monthly maximum—that of September, 1897.

What is to be the further history of the recovery in our foreign trade? The weekly statements from the various ports indicate that January may make a more striking comparison than December; their surplus of exports, during the first half of this month, was nearly $70,000,000. Later on, the extraordinary wheat exports will necessarily decrease. There will remain, however, the shipments of various kinds of army material and supplies, which in November rose $12,500,000 over the previous year, and cotton is now going out both in larger quantities and at higher values. Behind all this stands the interesting problem, whether the return of financial confidence, which has lately been so marked in the United States, will spread to the other neutral countries; if so, whether they will resume their import of foreign manufactures, and whether our markets, which have been providing capital for those countries, will get the benefit in our export trade.

This spectacular change in our foreign trade balance—from an October export surplus $81,600,000 less than in 1913 to a December export surplus greater by $82,600,000—and the signs that December's conditions are continuing, have revived discussion of what happened in the only other period of our history which can be compared with this. Even in the autumn months, when our export trade was cut down thirty to eighty millions from the preceding year, one was reminded of the fact that the United States got the trade of the world in the Napoleonic wars. Why, it was occasionally asked, should we not, in the face of a second war between the great European Powers, repeat the achievement?

Last month's figures would appear on their face to show that we are repeating it. Certainly, it is true that whereas in 1803, the last year of truce between England and Napoleon, the total merchandise exports of the United States were $55,800,000, they rose to $77,700,000 in 1804, to $95,500,000 in 1805, to $101,500,000 in 1806, and to $108,300,000 in 1807. This would seem on its face to reflect conditions closely similar to those which are now coming into view.

As a matter of fact, however, the movement was altogether different. The increase in our December exports was wholly in domestic products needed peremptorily by Europe. There was little or no increase of the sort after 1803; the country's export of its own products, which had been $42,200,000 in 1803, was only $41,200,000 as late as 1806. What did happen in our trade was part of the history of the period. As a neutral state, we had a right to carry non-contraband goods into the ports of any European belligerent.

In particular, the very important West Indian trade was open to the Continent of Europe only when carried under the American flag. Our merchants, therefore, brought such goods first to this country's ports, then cleared them as foreign merchandise reëxported; and such exports, which footed up only $13,500,000 in 1803, had risen by 1806 to $60,200,000. It is a somewhat extraordinary fact that in no year of history, after the Napoleonic wars, did our ships carry out more than 70 per cent. as much foreign merchandise as in 1806. The highest figure since that first decade of the nineteenth century in our export of foreign merchandise was $42,500,000. It was reached in the year just ended.

The history of the years after 1806 tells of growing interference by the European combatants in this lucrative trade of the United States with their respective enemies. Eventually, they struck it down by refusing (quite illegally) to recognize such reëxports as neutral trade; and then came our own war of 1812. But that is another story.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

Baker, G. P. The Magic Tale of Harvanger and Yolande. Doran. $1.35 net.
Bank, W. D. James. Doran. $1.25 net.
Ervine, St. John G. Mrs. Martin's Man. Macmillan. $1.35 net.
Roland, John. The Good Shepherd. Stokes. $1.25 net.
Schlicht, Baron von. Life in a German Crack Regiment. Dodd, Mead. $1 net.
Snaith, J. G. Broke of Covenden. Boston: Small, Maynard. $1.35 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Benson, A. C. The Orchard Pavilion. Putnam. $1 net.
Cahalane, C. F. Police Practice and Procedure. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Desk Standard Dictionary. Funk & Wagnalls.
Jackson, H. E. The New Chivalry. Doran. 50 cents net.
Kellogg, B. Occasional Addresses. Charles E. Merrill Co.
Loeb Classical Library: Plutarch's Lives. Vols. I and II. Ovid: Heroides and Amores. Procopius. Cæsar: The Civil Wars. Dio's Roman History. Vol. III. Xenophon: Cyropædia. Vol. II. Edited by T. E. Page and W. H. D. Rouse. Macmillan.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

Bakenhus, R. E., Knapp, H. S., and Johnson, E. R. The Panama Canal. First edition. J. Wiley & Sons.
Barclay, Sir Thomas. Law and Usage of War. Houghton Mifflin. $1.50 net.
Ciker, F. W. Readings in Political Philosophy. Macmillan.
Dunning, W. A. Studies in Southern History and Politics. Columbia University Press.
Howe, F. C. The Modern City and Its Problems. Scribner. $1.50 net.
Journals of the Continental Congress. 1774-1789. Edited by Gaillard Hunt. Vol. XXII. Washington: Government Printing Office.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Ames, F. T. Between the Lines in Belgium. Dodd, Mead. $1 net.
Bayley, Frank W. The Life and Works of John Singleton Copley. Boston: Taylor Press.
Dana, E. L. Makers of America. Immigrant Pub. Co. 50 cents net.
Rose, J. H. William Pitt and the Great War. London: Bell. 7s. 6d. net.
Steevens, G. W. With Kitchener to Khartum. Dodd, Mead. $1.50 net.
Stopes, Mrs. G. C. Shakespeare's Environment. London: Bell. 7s. 6d. net.

SCIENCE.

Best, H. The Deaf: Their Position in Society. Crowell. $2 net.
Curtis, H. S. Education Through Play. Macmillan.
Laws, B. C. Stability and Equilibrium of Floating Bodies. Van Nostrand. $3.50 net.
MacBride, E. W. Textbook of Embryology. Vol. I. Invertebrata. Macmillan.
Shaw, N. Chinese Forest Trees and Timber Supply. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 10s. 6d. net.

MUSIC AND DRAMA.

Echegaray, José. The Great Galeoto. (Contemporary Dramatists Series.) Boston: Badger. 75 cents net.
Porter, C. and Clarke, H. A. Shakespeare Study Programs: The Tragedies. Boston: Badger. $1 net.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Wells, Howard. Ears, Brain, and Fingers. A Textbook for Piano Teachers and Pupils. Boston: Ditson. $1.25 net.

ART.

Koldewey, R. The Excavations at Babylon. Macmillan.

TEXTBOOKS.

Manfred, M. E. Ein Praktischer Anfang. Heath. $1.10 net.

The Unpopular Review

Specimen copies sent subject to return or payment

Lord Bryce has written to the editor of **The Unpopular Review:**

'Tis a long time since I have read anything so good in any review or magazine. . . . To my great satisfaction people here were beginning to appreciate and enjoy it when the storm burst upon us.

It is fresh, not hackneyed or conventional, and it is full of thinking, written not because something has to be said, but because the writers have something to say.

Contents of the January-March number:

THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE WAR
THE EXPANSIONIST FALLACY
NIETZSCHE IN ACTION
PARABLES OF THE DRAMATIC MOB
OUR CHAOTIC DIVORCE LAWS
THE PASSING OF THE EDUCATED MAN
THE CULT OF ST. VITUS
ACADEME AND MAYFAIR
FEMINISM AND SOCIALISM
WHAT IS THE CHANCE FOR A JOB?
THE NATION'S ADVENTURES IN EDUCATION
WHAT IS PROGRESSIVE?
OUR DEBT TO PSYCHICAL RESEARCH (II)
ETHNIC DARWINISM: A NEW-OLD FALLACY
EN CASSEROLE

Professor Alvin S. Johnson, *of Cornell:*

"If anybody had told me, a year ago, that we should have, in this country, a magazine as good as this, I'd have spurned him as a false prophet."

75 cents a number. *$2.50 a year.*

HENRY HOLT AND COMPANY 34 West 33d St. NEW YORK

Dynamic Evolution

A Study of the Causes of Evolution and Degeneracy

By CASPAR L. REDFIELD

12mo. Cloth. $1.50

"A new, highly illuminating, exceedingly fascinating study of evolution—the real thing—the characteristics which make one animal superior to another in the struggle for existence. The writer formulates a theory of animal energy, the process by which it is increased or diminished from generation to generation, and the manner in which it is transmitted. This theory he substantiates by statistics drawn from the pedigrees of horses, cattle, dogs and men.

"It is one of the few books that I so intensely appreciate that I read it with ardent devotion and great care twice in two days, and they were such busy days that only such a book as this could have received even passing attention. The facts in it, vital, fascinating facts, are absolutely invaluable to me and to any one interested in the great problems of humanity, as illuminated by a study of dominant influence from many angles."—*Journal of Education.*

New York 2-6 West 45th St. **G. P. Putnam's Sons** London 24 Bedford Street

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA PRESS
BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA

Ready in January

A HISTORY OF THE WESTERN BOUNDARY OF THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE, 1819-1841

By THOMAS MAITLAND MARSHALL

Cloth, xiii, 264 pages, $2.00

IN PRESS:

TEXAS IN THE MIDDLE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY. By Herbert E. Bolton

MY HAPPY HUNTING GROUNDS

With Notes on Sport and Natural History

By Alfred Erskine Gathorne-Hardy, Author of "Autumns in Argyllshire," "The Salmon," etc. With 30 Illustrations by G. E. Lodge, Sir Frank Lockwood, W. A. Toplis, and from Photographs. 8vo. $3.00 *net.*

LONGMANS, GREEN, & CO.

Foreign Books and Magazines

Correspondence Solicited

E. P. DUTTON & COMPANY

681 Fifth Avenue, near 54th Street
NEW YORK

The Nation
At Leading Book Stores

THE NATION is on sale at leading book stores and newsstands throughout the United States and Canada. Our readers will confer a favor by reporting to us any newsstand or book store at which they are unable to obtain copies of THE NATION. If you desire to secure a copy regularly through the newsdealer, during temporary sojourn at any place, it is a good plan to give him a regular order. List of dealers in a number of cities where THE NATION may be obtained is as follows:

Ann Arbor, Mich., H. Stofflet.
Atlanta, Ga., Miller's Book Store.
Baltimore, Md., Newsstand, Hotel Belvedere.
Beloit, Wis., E. A. Nelson.
Buffalo, N. Y., Iroquois Hotel Newsstand.
Chicago, Ill., A. C. McClurg & Co.
Chicago, Ill., A. Kroch.
Cleveland, O., Pushaw Stand in Superior Arcade.
Decatur, Ill., W. T. McFadden.
Galesburg, Ill., G. A. Swenson.
Hartford, Conn., H. P. Koppleman.
Milwaukee, Wis., T. S. Gray Co., 104 Wisconsin St.
Ithaca, N. Y., D. Mayers.
Monmouth, Ill., H. G. & C. A. Johnson.
Montreal, Chapman's Book Store.
New Orleans, La., C. E. Staub.
New Orleans, La., G. E. Hill.
Newport, R. I., W. P. Clarke Co.
Pittsburgh, Pa., Boggs & Buhl Book Dept.
Pittsburgh, Pa., Horne's Book Dept.
Pittsburgh, Pa., Jones Book Shop, 416 Wood St.
Richmond, Va., Richmond News Co.
San Francisco, Cal., Golden Gate News Co.
Savannah, Ga., J. Gardner.
Springfield, Mass., Hotel Kimball Newsstand.
St. Louis, Mo., Philip Roeder Book Store, 703 Locust St.
Toronto, Canada, Prince George Hotel Newsstand.
Toronto, Canada, McKenna's Book Store, 235 Yonge Street.
Washington, D. C., Newsstands at National, Willard and Shoreham Hotels; Adams News Depot, 622 9th Street.
Winnipeg, Canada, F. R. Morris.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"At McCLURG'S"

It is of interest and importance to Librarians to know that the books reviewed and advertised in this magazine can be purchased from us at advantageous prices by .

Public Libraries Schools, Colleges and Universities

In addition to these books we have an exceptionally large stock of the books of all publishers—a more complete assortment than can be found on the shelves of any other book-store in the entire country. We solicit correspondence from librarians unacquainted with our facilities.

LIBRARY DEPARTMENT

A. C. McCLURG & CO.

CHICAGO

STUDIES IN SOUTHERN HISTORY AND POLITICS

Edited by JAMES W. GARNER, *Professor of Political Science in the University of Illinois.*

8vo, cloth, pp. viii+394. $2.50 net.

A collection of fifteen articles on topics relating to the South by professors in various colleges and universities of the country.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY PRESS
LEMCKE AND BUECHNER, Agents
30-32 West 27th Street New York

MAJOR PROPHETS OF TO-DAY

By EDWIN M. SLOSSON

Pen portraits of Bergson, Maeterlinck, Haeckel and other leaders in the world of letters.

LITTLE, BROWN & CO.
PUBLISHERS - - BOSTON

THE ANTI-TRUST ACT AND THE SUPREME COURT

By Hon. WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT.

Former-President Taft discusses in all its bearings the Sherman Anti-Trust Law, the effect of its decisions upon business in the past and its probable influence in the future. *$1.25 net.*

HARPER & BROTHERS

The Curious Lore of Precious Stones

BY GEORGE FREDERICK KUNZ.

With numerous plates in color and double tone. 8vo. Cloth, Boxed, $5.00 net. Carriage extra.

Being a Description of Their Sentiments and Folk-Lore, Superstitions, Symbolism, Mysticism, Use in Medicine, Protection, Prevention, Religion and Divination. On Crystal Gazing, Birth Stones and Royal Jewels.

J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

PROBLEMS OF AMERICAN GEOLOGY

(Dana Commemorative Lectures. Delivered on the Silliman Foundation)

The Geology of James Dwight Dana, *by William North Rice.*

Problems of the Canadian Shield: The Archæozoic, *by Frank D. Adams;* The Proterozoic, *by Arthur P. Coleman.*

Problems of the Cordilleras: The Cambrian and its Problems, *by Charles D. Walcott;* The Igneous Geology and its Problems, *by Waldemar Lindgren.*

The Tertiary Orogeny and its Problems, *by Frederick L. Ransome.*

The Tertiary Sedimentary Record and its Problems, *by William D. Matthew.*

The two great problems of American geology in which Dana was particularly interested are here presented with their possible solutions. Each subject has been treated by the specialist in that field and in each case his address contains the result of individual research.

The lectures are all extensively illustrated with cuts, maps and diagrams.

Price $4.00 Net, Postpaid.

YALE UNIVERSITY PRESS
209 Elm St., New Haven, Conn. 225 5th Av., New York

PLAY AND RECREATION FOR THE OPEN COUNTRY

By HENRY S. CURTIS, Founder and First Secretary of the Playground Association of America.

THE author discusses the most vital problem of rural sociology—the need for organized recreational facilities in country communities. He treats his subject in four parts as follows: Part 1, Play in the home and its environs; Part 2, Play at the rural school; Part 3, Recreation in the rural community; Part 4, The rural social center. The work is not all theoretical for much has already been done, especially in the middle western states, along the lines suggested by the author, and he is able to describe many successful experiments. 265 pages, illustrated, $1.16.

GINN AND COMPANY

Boston New York Chicago London
Atlanta Dallas Columbus San Francisco

HISTORY OF JAPANESE MATHEMATICS

By YOSHIO MIKAMI and DAVID EUGENE SMITH

Pp. 302. 8vo; cloth. Richly illustrated. Price $3.00

In considering the relative progress of European and Japanese mathematics there are two topics in which the Japanese made greater progress than the West. First comes the idea of a negative number. This appears in the second century B. C. and was probably even more ancient (p. 48) and is embodied in the use of red (*) and black (-) pieces on the 'sangi' board or abacus. It is not too much to say that the educational mathematics of the West has not yet gained so firm a grasp of the use of the negative number as the Japanese had in the 17th century.

The second important advantage gained by the Japanese was the method (equivalent to Horner's method) for the solution of numerical equations. The sangi or soroban, the abacus which the Japanese still employ, gave useful aid. The question whether the abacus in elementary education may not prepare us for the day when a calculation machine will cost less than a bicycle is an open one. The Japanese at present keep to the soroban, with such a reason in mind.

"The authors have conferred a real service to all mathematicians by the loving care with which they have set out the story of mathematics in Japan."—C. S. Jackson.

THE OPEN COURT PUBLISHING CO., CHICAGO AND LONDON

The Net Paid Circulation of

The Nation

for the Year 1914 Increased

20%

over the Year 1913

The Net Paid Circulation of the First Issue in January 1915 Exceeded the Corresponding issue in January 1914 by 43%

As THE NATION makes no sensational appeal for subscribers, this remarkable increase must be due to the merit of its contents.

This twenty per cent. increase shows that NATION readers are recommending THE NATION to their friends, and that no eloquence is needed to disclose its continued improvement and the value of THE NATION to its subscribers.

This twenty per cent. proves that THE NATION is the favorite weekly of lovers of good literature, and that it maintains more securely than ever the position it has held since its foundation in 1865 as

America's Foremost Critical Review

Subscription renewals accepted at the old rate of $3 a year until March 1st.

The Nation Press, Inc., 20 Vesey St., New York

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED